DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 449 567 EA 030 855

AUTHOR	Brock, Barbara L.; Grady, Marilyn L.
TITLE	From First-Year to First-Rate: Principals Guiding Beginning Teachers.
ISBN	ISBN-0-8039-6419-6
PUB DATE	1997-00-00
NOTE	121p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Corwin Press, Inc., 2455 Teller Rd., Thousand Oaks, CA 91320-2218 (paperback: ISBN-0-8039-6419-6, $19.95; hardcover: ISBN-0-8039-6418-8, $45.95). Tel: 805-499-9734; Fax: 800-4-1-SCHOOL; e-mail: order@corwinpress.com; Web site: http://www.corwinpress.com.
PUB TYPE	Books (010) -- Guides - Non-Classroom (055)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	*Beginning Teacher Induction; *Beginning Teachers; Classroom Techniques; Elementary Secondary Education; *Mentors; *Principals; Public Schools; School Administration; *Teacher Attitudes; *Teacher Improvement

ABSTRACT

This has been written as a handbook for administrators who want to develop a first-year teacher-induction plan. The book provides a profile of the beginning teacher's needs, expectations, common problems, and transition issues. A framework for structuring year-long assistance and strategies for problem solving are included. The work draws from the authors' experiences as school principals, college professors, and researchers on the topic of first-year teachers. The book begins by profiling beginning teachers, who may have just graduated from college or who may have returned to teaching after parenthood or other careers. The problems of beginning teachers are identified, as well as the challenges that principals face in assisting novice teachers. The varied school cultures of schools and the difficulty that beginners encounter in adapting their generic college preparations to specific school contexts are examined as well. (Contains 7 pages of references.) (DFR)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality

- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

G. Alkema

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

2B

ED 449 567

From First-Year to First-Rate

Principals Guiding Beginning Teachers

Barbara L. Brock
Marilyn L. Grady

EA 030855

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

From First-Year to First-Rate

CORWIN
PRESS

The Corwin Press logo—a raven striding across an open book—represents the happy union of courage and learning. We are a professional-level publisher of books and journals for K–12 educators, and we are committed to creating and providing resources that embody these qualities. Corwin's motto is "Success for All Learners."

From First-Year to First-Rate

Principals Guiding Beginning Teachers

Barbara L. Brock
Marilyn L. Grady

CORWIN PRESS, INC.
A Sage Publications Company
Thousand Oaks, California

Copyright © 1997 by Corwin Press, Inc.

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or utilized in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system, without permission in writing from the publisher.

For information:

Corwin Press, Inc.
A Sage Publications Company
2455 Teller Road
Thousand Oaks, California 91320
E-mail: order@corwin.sagepub.com

SAGE Publications Ltd.
6 Bonhill Street
London EC2A 4PU
United Kingdom

SAGE Publications India Pvt. Ltd.
M-32 Market
Greater Kailash I
New Delhi 110 048 India

Printed in the United States of America

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Brock, Barbara L.
From first-year to first-rate: Principals guiding the beginning teacher / authors, Barbara L. Brock, Marilyn L. Grady.
p. cm.
Includes bibliographical references and index.
ISBN 0-8039-6418-8 (cloth). — ISBN 0-8039-6419-6 (pbk.)
1. First-year teachers—Supervision of—United States—Handbooks, manuals, etc. 2. First-year teachers—United States—Handbooks, manuals, etc. I. Grady, Marilyn L. II. Title.
LB2844.1.N4B76 1997
371.2'01—dc21 96-51205

99 00 01 02 03 10 9 8 7 6 5 4

This book is printed on acid-free paper.

Editorial Assistant: Janet Westenberg
Production Editor: Sherrise M. Purdum
Production Assistant: Denise Santoyo
Typesetter/Designer: Yang-hee Syn Maresca
Cover Designer: Marcia R. Finlayson

Contents

Introduction ix

About the Authors xiii

1. **Profile of the Beginning Teacher** 1
The Mature Beginner 4
Alternative Certification 5
Beginning Teachers From Minority Groups 6
Reentry to Teaching 7
Returning to the Workforce 8
Experienced Teacher in a New School 8
Summary 9

2. **Major Problems and Barriers Beginners Face** 11
Reality Shock 11
Weak Knowledge Base 12
Administrators and Expectations 13
Developing a Style 14
Isolation 15

New Kid on the Block 15
Classroom Dilemmas 16
Setup for Failure 17
Lack of Resources 18
Are You Old Enough to Be a Teacher? 18
Nonpublic Schools 20
Overwhelmed 20
Summary 21

3. Role of the Principal 22
The Power of the Principal 23
The Leadership of the Principal 23
Why Should Principals Work With Beginning Teachers? 24
What Expectations Do Principals Have? 25
What Is the Principal's Role With Beginning Teachers? 26
What Problems Are Within the Control of the Principal? 27
Support for the Principal 30
How Do Principals Find the Time to Help? 30
Assessing Time Spent 30
Taking Charge of Your Time 31
Summary 32

4. Orientation Starts Before the School Year Begins 33
Structure of the Induction Program 33
The Orientation Phase 34
Orientation Meetings: Setting the Stage 36
The Role of the Principal in Orientation 39
Summary 41

5. What a Good Induction Program Looks Like 42
What Is Developmental Induction? 42
Organizational Structure 45
Program Delivery 46
Welcome Beginning Teachers 47
Summary 50

6. Welcoming the New Teacher Into the School Culture 52
The Strength of School Cultures 52
Socializing the Beginning Teacher 60

7. Seeing the Novice as an Adult Learner 63
Adult Learning 64
Stages of Development 65

Ego Development 65
Cognitive Development 66
Level of Concern 67
Level of Commitment 69
Influencing Factors 70
Workplace Factors 72

8. Helping the New Teacher Develop Classroom Management Strategies 74
The Principal's Role 75
The Teacher's Role 76
Summary 79

9. Building a Teacher-Mentor Support Team 80
The Need for Mentorship Programs 81
Where Did the Idea of Mentors Originate? 81
How Do We Know That Mentoring Works? 82
What Are the Benefits of Mentorships? 82
Beginning a Teacher-Mentor Program 83
The Needs of New Teachers 84
The Framework of a Mentor Program 86
What Are the Requirements for a Mentor? 86
Matching Mentors With Entry-Year Teachers 87
The Process of Mentoring 88
How Should Mentors Be Oriented? 89
Training of Mentors 89
Diagnosing Problems 90
Conferencing With Beginners 91
The Role of Other Faculty 92
Administrative Support 93
University Consultants 94
Program Evaluation 94

10. Ideas for Measuring Success 96
Needs Assessment 96
Goals 97
Year-End Evaluation 98

References 100

Introduction

Remember your first teaching experience? Your feelings probably vacillated between exhilaration and sheer terror. After years of study and anticipation, you were finally a teacher. You were on the other side of the desk, in charge of the learning experiences for many students. The students were counting on you. Their parents and the principal had great expectations for your capabilities. However, you were filled with questions and self-doubts. What does the principal expect of me? How are things done in this school? How will I know if I am doing a good job? Will I fit in?

The answers to these questions are critical. If you remember your first year with pleasure, you probably had all or most of your questions answered for you. If your first year was miserable, you probably had to figure out the answers for yourself.

Our intent is to stimulate your interest in the vulnerability of the novice teacher and in the role that a principal can play in guiding a beginner into becoming a first-rate teacher. Our premise is that principals hold the key to the professional development of beginning teachers.

Although principals are called on to be instructional leaders, the literature provides little direction for principals in their efforts to help beginning teachers. Not much attention has been paid to the basic needs of new teachers, the challenges that principals face in working with them, or the design of effective assistance programs. Without quality induction programs, many novice teachers become frustrated. Their enthusiasm and dreams give way to disillusionment and despair. Feeling that they have failed, they leave the profession within the first two years. The consequences for administrators are continual rehiring and a disruption in the quality and continuity of their school programs.

A successful beginning is critical to a teacher's career as well as the education of students. When beginning teachers do not succeed, everyone loses. Clearly, the success of first-year teachers needs to be a concern of all.

Several factors combine to make the first year difficult. For many first-year teachers, the career transition is paralleled by personal transitions. After seventeen years as a student, the new graduates enter the world of adult responsibilities. This means a lifestyle transformation, changing places of residence, and becoming financially independent. The difficulty of the transition is often underscored by the loss of supportive college peers and professors.

The expectations at their new schools are challenging. New teachers join faculties in which friendships and social groups are already formed. The cultural norms and shared history of the school are unknown to them. The general teaching methods they learned in college need to be adapted to the specific needs of the school setting. Meanwhile, the administration and parents expect demonstrations of expertise comparable to a seasoned veteran.

Lifestyle and career transitions combined with changes in interpersonal relationships produce stress and loneliness. First-year teachers report feeling overwhelmed and isolated. They feel inadequate as teachers and are unaware that others experience similar problems. Without support and guidance, beginners often grasp the first strategies that work and cling to them throughout their careers. Little professional growth occurs. Other beginners become disillusioned and quit teaching after the first year.

Principals can play a key role in the critical first year by providing support and assistance. Clearly, principals want their beginning teachers to succeed. Most principals begin the year with an orientation and intend to provide ongoing support. Unfortunately, as the year's momentum builds, good intentions are overshadowed by more immediate administrative concerns. The beginning teachers and their students become victims of benign neglect.

From First Year to First Rate is written as a handbook for administrators who want to develop a first-year teacher induction plan. The book provides a profile of the beginning teacher's needs, expectations, common problems, and transition issues. A framework for structuring yearlong assistance and strategies for problem solving are included. We draw from our experiences as school principals, college professors, and researchers on the topic of first-year teachers.

We begin with a look at a profile of a beginning teacher. Some new teachers have just graduated from college and are dealing with multiple issues. Others are older, initially entering or returning to teaching after pursuing parenthood or other careers. Some new teachers have business backgrounds, entering through alternative certification programs. Often overlooked are the veterans who are transferring into a new school after several years elsewhere.

The problems of beginning teachers are identified, as well as the challenges that principals face in assisting novice teachers. We examine the varied social cultures of schools and the difficulty that beginners encounter in adapting their generic college preparations to specific school contexts. We outline positive steps that a principal can take to design a comprehensive induction program. We share ideas for the initial orientation, methods for selecting and training mentors, a framework for supervision, and guidelines for establishing an ongoing program. We also include examples of successful induction program practices, teachers' reports of their positive orientation experiences, and what they wish had been done in their early years. The last chapter suggests a process for evaluating, redesigning, and improving the induction programs.

Barbara L. Brock
Marilyn L. Grady

About the Authors

Barbara L. Brock is Assistant Professor and Director of the School Administration Program in the Department of Education at Creighton University, Omaha, Nebraska. Her research areas include the principalship, leadership, succession, and first-year teacher induction. She is co-author of the book *Principals in Transition: Tips for Surviving Succession* and has published articles in a number of journals, including the *Journal of School Leadership, Momentum,* and the *National Forum of Educational Administration and Supervision Journal.* She presents regularly at national conferences where her topics have included teacher induction programs, leadership succession, and innovative teaching methods. She is a member of MWERA, NCPEA, PDK, Kappa Delta Phi, and the Jesuit National Honor Society (Alpha Sigma Nu). She received a BA in art education from Briar Cliff College, Sioux City, Iowa, an MS in education from Creighton University, and an EdD in administration, curriculum, and instruction from the University of Nebraska–Lincoln.

Marilyn L. Grady is Associate Professor of Educational Administration at the University of Nebraska–Lincoln. Her research areas include leadership, the principalship, and superintendent-board relationships. She is co-author of the book *Principals in Transition* and has written for a number of journals, including *Planning and Changing*, the *High School Journal*, the *Journal of School Leadership*, and *Research in Rural Education*. She has more than 100 publications to her credit. She coordinates an annual conference on women in educational leadership that attracts national attendance and is in its tenth year. She has served on the executive board of the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration, the Center for the Study of Small Rural Schools, and PDK Chapter 15. She is a member of AERA, the Horace Mann League, the Schoolmasters Club, MWERA, NCPEA, AASA, PDK, and NREA. She has been an administrator in K through 12 schools as well as at the college and university levels. She received her BA in history from Saint Mary's College, Notre Dame, Indiana, and her PhD in educational administration with a specialty in Leadership from Ohio State University.

Chapter 1

Profile of the Beginning Teacher

The term *beginning teacher* describes a variety of individuals. Some so-called beginners are entering the teaching profession directly from college. Others arrive at the school door after raising a family or after a brief venture into the business world. A few individuals enter the profession without teaching backgrounds, learning to teach on the job. Some beginning teachers may also be from minority groups. A few beginners are experienced teachers who are transitioning to a new school. To design effective induction programs, principals need to know something about the backgrounds of the individuals that the programs will serve. Many induction efforts fail because they do not fulfill the needs of the participants.

Most beginning teachers are recent college graduates. Yesterday, they were blue-jeaned students, groaning about professors' lectures and anticipating weekend parties. Today, they are teachers, expected to look, behave, and speak as professionals.

On the inside they are terrified. They have stepped out of a college culture of good friends and supportive professors. As students they were probably financially dependent on their parents. They may have lived in a dorm or apartment but still considered their parents' house home. Now they are "real" teachers with professional responsibilities. This is quite a transition for someone who is only "twenty-something."

This stage of beginning adulthood is described by researchers as the exploratory-trial stage, involving the initial transition from schooling to work. The stage is characterized by insecurity, false starts, and instability. The typical teacher education graduate entering teaching directly out of college is at the exploratory stage, according to Barocas, Reichman, and Schewel, and Belkin and Nass (cited in Camp & Heath-Camp, 1991).

The first year of teaching is filled with high expectations and often extreme difficulties. In 1978, the National Institute for Education reported that the conditions under which new teachers carried out the first year determined the effectiveness, attitudes, and behaviors the teachers developed and sustained for an entire career. The first-year experience is also a frequent factor in the decision whether or not to remain in the profession (Ryan, 1979; Zumwalt, 1984). Many motivated and potentially superb teachers leave prematurely. Edinburg's studies (cited in Cuellar & Huling-Austin, 1991) reveal that teacher shortages in some areas, particularly ethnically diverse teachers, have forced administrators and policy makers to reexamine and revise past approaches in retaining first-year teachers.

The first year of teaching includes three major characteristics reflected in most career changes: (a) changes in the definition of oneself, (b) experiencing the novelty of a totally new situation, and (c) major changes in the interpersonal support network. New teachers experience the new environment of the school in addition to the new informal and formal expectations of being a teacher. For many teachers, entering the teaching profession is also concomitant with entering adulthood (Heck & Williams, 1984; Ryan et al., 1980).

The issues that young teachers face as they venture into adulthood and their teaching careers include the following factors. The first change is in the definition of oneself. The beginning teacher exchanges the familiar status of college student for that of teacher. Behavior, dress, and lifestyles acceptable for college students are not always acceptable for teachers. Establishing and becoming comfortable with a new identity and leadership expectations are adjustments. New teachers look to colleagues in their new school to model appropriate professional behavior, dress, and lifestyles.

A second issue new teachers experience is the novelty of a totally new situation. First-year teachers who have had successful college experiences look forward to the first year. Most move into the role of teacher with confidence and enthusiasm. Accustomed to academic success, they may not anticipate problems. After all, schools are familiar settings. They have spent over thirteen years in them and have watched countless people teach. Because they have been successful in most academic endeavors, beginning teachers are certain that they will be excellent teachers. However, the reality from the other side of the desk is often much different. The yearlong responsibilities of teaching, managing students, and relating to colleagues and parents are unlike anything else they have ever experienced. When problems occur, some beginners become dismayed and blame themselves. They mistakenly regard typical first-year teacher problems as personal failures. Unless they are provided with support and opportunities to talk with other novices, they will become discouraged. Unaccustomed to dealing with anything less than success, some beginning teachers assume that they are in the wrong profession and quit.

A third issue is the change in interpersonal support networks. The change from college student to teacher affects relationships with parents, college professors, and friends. For many new teachers, this is the first time decisions must be made without the assistance of those in their former support network. The first step into independent adulthood also means a new set of personal relationships. At a time when young teachers are most unsure of themselves and most vulnerable, they no longer have the familiar support of campus friends and college professors. Some have recently married and have the added stress of adjusting to a spouse (Heck & Williams, 1984; Ryan et al., 1980).

Often the first and most fundamental pressures that the beginning teacher will face have little to do with teaching but are critical to the beginning of a career. First there are the financial choices that the beginning teacher needs to make. Many college students are financially dependent on their parents. Even when students live away from home during college, parents often provide a home base, living expenses, and health and dental care. Many students drive cars owned and insured by their parents. Some do not have cars. Graduation and the first teaching job change this financial picture. For the first time the young professional becomes financially independent, tackling real financial issues, such as renting a place to live, buying a car, and securing insurance.

The benefit menus provided by school districts present many confusing choices for the beginners. They are confronted with health, dental, and disability benefits and must select a retirement plan. As one young woman said, "Yesterday, I didn't even know I needed these things. I have no idea what most of this means. How do I know what to select?"

Even the teaching contract itself is a "foreign" document. Presented with her first teaching contract, one young teacher responded with trepidation, "I'm afraid to sign this. I have never read a contract before and I don't understand what it means. I need someone to explain it to me."

Teachers may have taken a position in an unfamiliar place. For them, the stress is compounded by loneliness. Family and friends are far away. The individuals who interviewed and hired them may be the only people they know.

Their first priority is finding services to meet their basic needs, a place to live, a bank, a place to shop, recreation areas, a physician, and a dentist. New teachers need to locate living accommodations and determine the best routes to work. Before the year begins, they need to become familiar with the community and socioeconomic backgrounds of the students who attend the school.

The Mature Beginner

Some beginning teachers are older and more mature. These individuals have returned to college later in life, have completed degrees, and are entering the teaching profession as mature adults. One would expect more stability, more realistic expectations, and fewer false starts (Camp & Heath-Camp, 1991). The life experiences and maturity they bring to teaching should result in fewer personal adjustment problems, enabling them to focus on their teaching. Even mature beginners will experience the usual classroom dilemmas of beginning teachers. Daily lesson planning, motivating and managing a classroom full of lively students, plus interacting with parents, colleagues, and administration are new experiences. Their prior experiences probably did not include the problem solving needed in an educational setting. Mature beginners need the same assistance as younger teachers in these aspects of the daily challenges of teaching. Unfortunately, administrators may see a mature adult and forget that these adults are novices in the teaching world. They, too, need orientation and ongoing assistance.

Alternative Certification

Alternative certification programs provide opportunities for individuals with degrees in other fields to become teachers without enrolling in traditional teacher education programs. In some instances, the responsibility for training these novice teachers rests largely with the school districts that employ them. Other programs are university based in collaboration with school districts. Most programs provide criteria for entry, an intensive training program, a system of supervision combining mentor teachers and supervisors, and a state-mandated exit exam.

Alternative certification first appeared in the literature in the 1970s. Since the mid-1980s, several states have adopted laws to provide alternative certification programs. The first state to enact such a certification alternative was New Jersey, followed by California and Texas (Wise, Johnson, & Parson, 1994).

The reasons for the growth of alternative certification programs include dissatisfaction with traditional teacher preparation programs, teacher shortages in critical subject matter areas, and a desire to provide streamlined alternative provisions for mature persons to enter teaching (Cooperman & Klagholz, 1985; Ludlow & Wienke, 1994; McKibbin, 1988). Although touted by some as the answer to the shortage of teachers in critical areas, little research exists to support the effectiveness of the programs and their products (Ludlow & Wienke, 1994).

In a study of vocational teachers in an alternative program, Camp and Heath-Camp (1991) reported that the interns studied had the advantages of maturity, experience, and knowledge of subject matter but required assistance in curriculum development, teaching strategies, and instructional delivery. Their age and experiences provided the powerful advantages of being able to adjust readily to the working environment. However, the education world is much different from the business world, and the teachers needed ongoing assistance during their first year to orient them to their new career. A study comparing student teachers and teachers in alternative certification programs by Wise, Johnson, and Parsons (1994) noted that teachers in alternative programs continued to exhibit stress over the context of the teaching environment longer than their counterparts in traditional programs. Studies such as these would indicate a need for the provision of extensive ongoing induction programs for teachers in alternative certification programs. Critical to the success of alternative certification programs is the provision of a solid training program and a strong network of support (McKibbin, 1988).

Beginning Teachers From Minority Groups

The personal challenges and insecurities that come from being in a new organizational setting are often intensified for minority teachers (Edinburg, cited in Cuellar & Huling-Austin, 1991). These beginners are separated from their ethnic group culture and also feel separated from the majority and minority groups represented in the faculty. Sometimes the school culture is confusing, and minorities do not understand district requirements, demands, and procedures. Afraid to express uncertainties with peers and administrators, they have nowhere to turn for help (Montemayor, 1990-1991).

In some instances, minority teachers are not welcomed by the total school community. Some large school districts hire minorities to provide an ethnic presence or fulfill a requirement. When this is the case, the newcomer may be the target of intense scrutiny and criticism. Biased and bigoted behaviors may compound the stressful issues facing the novice teacher.

In other instances, minority teachers find themselves welcomed but considered as representatives of an entire ethnic group. They are asked to solve all the problems that the majority teacher experiences when teaching minority children. The children's parents, on the other hand, view them as advocates for minority families. Parents express frustrations with the educational system. The novice teachers quickly find themselves in the middle of overwhelming societal problems that they cannot solve (Montemayor, 1990-1991).

Minority teachers are often selected as the ideal advocates to address the needs of at-risk students and those in bilingual education programs. Often these assignments are the most challenging in the school. Even though minority teachers may have a strong desire to work with minority children, sharing an ethnic origin is not sufficient preparation to tackle assignments that would challenge seasoned veterans (Montemayor, 1990-1991).

Thrust into societal issues beyond their control and frustrated that their students are not learning, the novices feel incompetent. Left alone to struggle, many decide that they are ineffective, have chosen the wrong career, and, ultimately, leave the teaching profession (Montemayor, 1990-1991).

Reentry to Teaching

Former teachers returning to the classroom are often treated like seasoned veterans. The perception is that they have taught before, they are mature, therefore, they know what to do. The reality is that, although they may have their personal lives in order, during their absence from teaching much has changed in the profession. Teaching styles, student needs, curriculum demands, and district expectations may be quite different. Unless the returning teachers have kept current, they may be in for quite a shock.

Some returning teachers may have left teaching after their first years, so they are still in the formative stages of their teaching development. They are actually beginning teachers who will encounter many of the same problems and dilemmas as other novice teachers. Despite their maturity, they should be considered beginning teachers and be provided with appropriate assistance.

One principal related the following story about a teacher who returned after several years of working in the business world. She was mature, held a master's degree, and had a wealth of business experiences. Before going into business, she had taught math for two years to high school students. Her new position was teaching math to junior high students. Early in the Fall she requested and was granted permission to allow her students to have a Saturday morning car wash. By late Saturday morning, the principal was receiving calls from irate parents who reported horrendous behaviors at the car wash. According to reports, students were doing everything but washing cars. A visit to the car wash site explained the problem: No teacher was present. Later, confronted by the principal, a surprised and perplexed teacher explained, "I was there to get them started and they were doing very well. I thought that they were mature enough to handle it by themselves, so I left."

Returning to the Workforce

Some returning teachers have been home raising children for several years. The transition to work may be difficult for the entire family and will require personal adjustments for the teacher. The realities of transportation problems, day care, sick children, and returning home to the needs of a family may prove overwhelming to the teacher. Until the personal issues are addressed, the teacher will experience great difficulty in adjusting to the demands of students and teaching.

In addition, some reentry teachers may have taught only one or two years prior to staying home with children. They are in fact beginning teachers and will likely experience all the pitfalls and dilemmas of other novices.

Experienced Teacher in a New School

The term *induction* usually refers to the entry of individuals to the teaching profession. Although this book focuses primarily on teachers in their first years of the teaching profession, another group of teachers is often overlooked when designing induction programs. These are the veteran teachers who have changed schools or districts and have become newcomers again. The misconception is that they should already know what to do. After all, they are mature and have taught for several years. As a result they are expected to be instantly competent even though they may have made a significant geographic change or have taken on new and possibly additional responsibilities at the new school (Hartzell, 1990).

Some of the changes that the experienced teacher will confront may be more difficult than those of a novice. The novice is experiencing an initiation into the profession with few entrenched behaviors and ideas. The experienced teacher has a set of preconceptions regarding the role of a teacher and the operation of a school. This conceptual framework may need to alter considerably to fit into the new school setting (Hartzell, 1990).

Each school has a culture, "the way things are done here." Everyday occurrences and expectations may vary widely from the veteran's experiences. If "the way things are done here" differs widely from the veteran's previous school, this may be a source of great discomfort.

The newcomer will encounter a new faculty with established norms and social groupings. The enthusiasm of the reception will depend on a variety of factors. Does this person fill a critical need and thus merit a welcoming response? Does the newcomer threaten already established territories? If so, integration into the new group may be difficult. If the newcomer is different in ethnicity or gender from the new group, teachers may be wary and the reception strained. In addition, the veteran teacher may miss relationships that were left behind.

Differences may exist in the socioeconomics, language, or ethnicity of the community and students. The newcomer may have to reassess and realign preconceived notions of student expectations to meet the needs of the population served. One experienced first-grade teacher, struggling to match her expectations to the realities of the students' abilities, explained to her principal, "I am having trouble designing lessons that meet the abilities of the students. End-of-the-year test scores for the students that I previously taught are far below the level at which these students began the year. When these children entered my room the first day of school, most could already read. I wasn't prepared for that."

Summary

Regardless of their varied circumstances, all of the beginners will undergo dramatic changes in their personal and professional lives as they begin a challenging year of teaching. Teaching is a complex and idiosyncratic process, developed over time in the context of a school environment. College classes and student teaching cannot replicate the realities of day-to-day classroom teaching or the diversity of school environments that beginners will encounter. Administrators need to recognize that novice teachers are not thoroughly proficient and will need ongoing assistance.

The transition of individuals into the teaching world is dramatic and potentially stressful, often characterized by changes in personal lifestyles, residence, and support groups, as well as the commencement of the demands of teaching. Although dramatic, the changes need not be traumatic if the principal ensures that someone is present to guide the beginner through the transition. The key is being sensitive to the varied needs of the newcomers and responding with appropriate individualized assistance.

The early months of teaching are critical for the first-year teacher. Left on their own, beginning teachers focus on whatever works. During this initial teaching period, attitudes tend to become more negative and behavior becomes more inflexible. When the novices discover something that works, they tend to stick with the practice for a long time. The resulting teaching practices become a style that is adopted without examining its particular merits. Only a narrow range of teaching practices is explored and the beginning teachers fail to strive for the most effective practices. This leads to teacher stagnation rather than ongoing teacher development (Howey & Bents, 1979; Langana, 1970; Shulman & Colbert, 1988; Zumwalt, 1984).

Efforts to keep a new teacher growing need to begin as soon as the teacher is hired and continue throughout the early years of teaching. Too often, new teachers have conversations with their principal only when problems occur or when it is time for formal evaluations. In addition, new teachers are largely ignored by their experienced peers and seldom have the opportunity to observe any of them teaching. For growth to occur, new teachers must have a psychologically safe environment conducive to nonevaluative problem solving, analysis, and reflection. The new teachers must be exposed to frequent sharing with their experienced colleagues (Zumwalt, 1984). Induction programs must be geared to fit individual needs as perceived by the beginning teachers.

Principals should become knowledgeable about the Employee Assistance Plans and Human Resource Offices in larger school districts. In the past, new employees were left in isolation to find their own solutions to the so-called problems of newness. Today, we know that professionals need a wide range of services to be successful. Principals must be prepared to offer first-year teachers support that encompasses personal and professional needs.

Chapter 2

Major Problems and Barriers Beginners Face

Teaching is one of the few careers in which the least experienced members face the greatest challenges and most responsibilities. The problems beginners experience are intrinsic to the teaching profession and the conditions of the school environment as a workplace (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 1995; Gordon, 1991; Lieberman & Miller, 1984). In this chapter, we examine the daily aspects of life for beginning teachers. In doing so, we consider the nature of teaching in general and the social context of schools.

Reality Shock

Beginning teachers have typically spent at least seventeen years of their lives inside schools. They probably became teachers because they enjoyed learning and schools were comfortable places for them. When they enter this familiar world as teachers they are shocked at the strangeness and discomfort that they feel. The view from the other side of the desk is very different (Ryan, 1986). Veenman (1984) studied the responses of beginning teachers in several countries and discovered similar feelings of shock. He noted that the transition in the English and German literature is referred to as the *reality shock, transition shock, Praxisschock,* or *Reinwascheffeckt.* In general, the terms mean that the bubble of idealism has burst and the teacher has entered the harsh world of daily classroom reality. Unlike a shock that passes quickly, becoming acclimated to the daily realities of teaching is a process that can last for the first two or three years of a teaching career.

Weak Knowledge Base

A major difficulty for beginning teachers is the weak knowledge base of the teaching profession. Little consensus exists regarding what constitutes good teaching practices (Lieberman & Miller, 1984). Beginning teachers frequently complain that preservice preparation does not adequately prepare them for actual teaching. Many describe their college classes as too theoretical and irrelevant to actual teaching. Field-based training experiences are meager and do not allow sufficient time and practice to develop proficiencies. As a result, beginners rely more on their own ideas to develop teaching practices than on their formal training (Clark, Smith, Newby, & Cook, 1985).

Problems also result because first-year teachers are given general training and are expected to teach in specific school settings. The sociological setting, ability ranges, goals, and culture vary greatly between schools. New teachers are expected to apply generalized knowledge to concrete situations (Ryan, 1979).

Although teacher education programs strive to create programs that provide a broad range of field experiences, the realities of the first year of teaching cannot be replicated. Colleges and universities do not turn out finished products. Principals who assume that the beginning teacher has all the competencies of a veteran are destined for disappointment and problems. Preservice education and induction into the profession need to be viewed as a developmental progression (Howey & Bents, 1979).

Administrators and Expectations

Beginning teachers are confronted with complicated handbooks, policies, written rules, formal procedures, and informal rules and customs. Unclear expectations of administrators, colleagues, parents and students add to the confusion (Gordon, 1991).

Beginning teachers view the administrator as the most significant person in the school. This is the person who likely made the final choice in hiring them and is viewed as their immediate supervisor. The many roles that the principal plays may be confusing. Viewed initially as a friend and supporter, the principal then becomes the person supervising their classes, and ultimately the one deciding their continuing employment. Beginning teachers desperately want to know the principal's expectations for the school and for their teaching. According to one new teacher we talked to,

> The most difficult part of [my new job] was the expectations of the principal. I didn't know what to expect . . . and how I was to relate. At the beginning, all I saw the principal do was act as a welcomer. Here's the school. Good luck! I didn't know what his role would be with me, his expectations for me, and how I could expect him to react. I was left on my own to develop a style of teaching and classroom management. I hoped that it was one that he approved of.

These remarks and the following comments reveal the uncertainty of a group of beginning teachers, who were interviewed at the end of their first semester of teaching. One teacher said, "I would like affirmation from my principal that I am doing things OK. If not I would like to know about it so I can address and correct the situation."

Another said, "I would like to meet monthly with my principal to discuss things like 'hidden agendas,' culture and traditions of the school, expectations, regular events, and what to expect, as well as an opportunity to bitch and gripe a bit."

Another responded, "I would like to meet one-on-one with my principal during the first weeks of school so I can ask questions."

And a grade school teacher reported,

> I like the high visibility of my principal. He pops into my room often. I like that because if he sees a problem, he can let

> me know right away. I like having feedback available like that. One thing that I wish he would have done is introduce me to the staff, so that I knew who everyone was and what they did. I would have liked a tour of the building, introductions to the people and then an explanation of procedures for the main school events before they happen. Walk me through the hurdles, tell me what to expect at conferences, open house, meet with the first-year teachers throughout the year to see how we're doing and tell us about events before they happen, what to expect. Prewarning us about parents who are known to have agendas and who can be difficult to deal with would be good. That way, we can anticipate and have strategies in place to prevent problems.

A high school teacher added, "The principal should express the expectations that he has for students in the school. I needed to know about the parameters of the grading system. I needed to know expectations for lesson plans."

Another responded, "Knowing the discipline policies and procedures before school begins is essential. Getting acquainted with and knowing the job descriptions of the secretaries is important. I was always asking them who does what and what the procedure is."

The beginning teachers' comments reveal how essential it is for the principal to establish frequent and open communications. Kurtz (1983) cites a lack of interaction with the building administrator as a major factor in the lack of success of a beginning teacher.

Developing a Style

Another difficulty, common to both veterans and beginners, is the contradiction of addressing the cognitive and affective needs of individual children while making cognitive gains with the entire class (Lieberman & Miller, 1984). These demands require a repertoire of strategies beyond the grasp of most first-year teachers. In a study conducted for this book, beginning teachers reported struggling with this very issue, ranking their greatest difficulty as addressing the needs of students with disabilities placed in their classroom. To meet the demands, the teachers attempt a series of trial and error strategies and adopt survival techniques. Some novices develop an entrenched idiosyncratic style that resists further professional development.

Isolation

Teaching can be a lonely job. Beginners and veterans alike spend much of their day alone with students, isolated from contact with other adults. Their rewards are mainly derived from students. Unlike people in professions in which colleagues and supervisors provide daily feedback, teachers rely on students to provide feedback and acknowledge their successes (Camp & Heath-Camp, 1991; Lieberman & Miller, 1994). To compound the difficulty, teaching is a profession marked by the uncertain connection between teaching and learning. Despite using the best techniques known, a teacher is never sure that learning is taking place (Lieberman & Miller, 1984). For beginning teachers struggling with discipline and unsure of the adequacy of their teaching, the lack of adult contact and support is frightening and frustrating. Many of them lose confidence in the adequacy of their teaching ability. During an interview conducted in a study by Brock (1988), a young teacher wept with relief when the interviewer noted that the problems she was describing were common to most beginners. The teacher replied, "No one told me that other beginners had these problems. I was planning to quit because I thought that I was a bad teacher."

New Kid on the Block

The new teacher may also experience social isolation. Many school faculties are close-knit groups with a shared history and close friendships. Existing faculty may be reluctant to welcome a newcomer. A new teacher upsets the applecart, changing the status and reward structure. Depending on the newcomer's reputation and reported talents, jealousies and turf concerns may surface (Ryan, 1986). One of the beginning teachers interviewed said, "It would have been nice to have some social gatherings so that we could meet informally. The problem is that newcomers aren't always welcomed into existing groups, especially if the faculty has been together for a long time."

Surprisingly enough, sometimes beginners are not helped by veterans, even when they see them struggling. A study by Camp and Heath-Camp (1991) noted a low level of interaction between beginning teachers and coworkers. Experienced faculty did not make much effort in socializing the novices into the faculty. Regarded as a "rite of passage" or "trial by fire," the first year is seen by some veteran teachers and principals as an experience novices must endure: If they cannot survive, perhaps they are not strong enough to become teachers (Brock, 1990; Glickman et al., 1995). Experienced teachers may want to help but do not want to be perceived as interfering. The beginners, knowing that they are expected to be as skilled as veterans, are afraid of being perceived as incompetent so do not ask for help (Glickman et al., 1995; Gordon, 1991).

In other instances, the veteran faculty mean well and have good intentions of helping the newcomers. They welcome them warmly, but as the school year progresses and they become busy with their own work, the new teachers become the victims of benign neglect.

In other instances, newcomers become victims of existing morale problems within a faculty. When the faculty is engaged in conflict or negative attitude toward the administration, the beginner is exposed to negativism and disappointing disillusionment. Examples of this surfaced during an induction course for beginning teachers taught by one of the authors. Several teachers in the group expressed great discomfort over the negative and critical comments made openly by teachers in their schools. The beginners were horrified, their idealistic views about the teaching profession shattered. They did not know how to respond. In one way they wanted to be accepted as part of the faculty. In another, they had been taught that this behavior was unprofessional and they did not want to become part of the negativity and inappropriate conversations.

Classroom Dilemmas

Classroom discipline has been a recurring struggle for novice teachers. In a 1977 study by Vittetoe, discipline was cited by supervisors as the number one reason for the failure of first-year teachers. Studies spanning the decades (Clark, 1986; Ryan, 1979) report the difficulties of novice teachers as they struggle to develop a style of discipline that is responsive to student needs and consistent with the discipline policy of the school. In a study of beginning teachers conducted for this book, the teachers surveyed ranked discipline as their second most difficult problem.

Ryan (1979) organizes the relationship problems that beginning teachers have with their students in three categories: (a) understanding human nature, (b) learning appropriate social distance, and (c) discipline. Novice teachers encounter students whose behaviors and attitudes are foreign to them. Young themselves, the teachers have difficulty establishing an appropriate social distance. Their desire to be liked and have good rapport with their students, although well intended, results in mixed messages and confusion. While the novices struggle to establish and become comfortable with their authority, discipline problems ensue. A lack of understanding of human nature, strong desire for student approval, and lack of behavior management skills collectively thwart their efforts to control their classrooms.

Many beginning teachers view discipline and teaching as distinct entities. Instead of capitalizing on and directing the energies of their students into productive learning, they attempt to control behavior. Discipline strategies designed on this faulty misconception are destined for failure and disappointment. When teachers learn to design developmentally appropriate learning activities, provide students with a sense of power and accomplishment, and actively engage students in participation, students become motivated and discipline problems diminish (Tanner & Tanner, 1987). Chapter 8 provides practical suggestions for principals working with beginning teachers who struggle with discipline.

Setup for Failure

Although other professions ordinarily increase the amount and difficulty of the work assigned in a gradual progression, this is not the case in teaching. Beginners often start out with more responsibilities than veterans and often with the same expectations for expertise (Camp & Heath-Camp, 1991; Gordon, 1991).

Some beginning teachers are challenged by being assigned the most difficult classes in the school. They are assigned to classes of low-ability, at-risk students that experienced teachers with seniority are able to escape. Studies by Edinburg (cited in Cuellar & Huling-

Austin, 1991) and other researchers often reveal that teachers with no experience are faced with students who require strong expertise in classroom management, motivational strategies, and individualized attention (Glickman et al., 1995).

Sometimes beginning teachers are inappropriately matched with diverse populations of students. Placing inadequately prepared teachers in situations for which they are also culturally unprepared can be disastrous for students and teachers. Edinburg's studies (cited in Cuellar & Huling-Austin, 1991) report that incoming teachers from different geographic areas should be prepared to adjust to the environment and work with the student population. Knauth and Kamin (1994) report so-called culture shock expressed by interns in a study of an alternative entry program in an urban school district. The interns expressed shock at the low reading skills and effects of difficult home lives that the students brought into the classroom.

Lack of Resources

Other novices report poor working conditions, such as the absence of materials and books (Shulman & Colbert, 1988). Knauth and Kamin (1994) report that interns in an urban school district were surprised at the lack of resources—particularly textbooks—in the schools.

In interviews conducted with one beginning teacher, she revealed that she had no classroom assigned to her at the beginning of the year and, because of lack of space and ongoing construction, her classes were moved daily. When other teachers were sick, her classes were canceled and she was used as a substitute. By the time she was assigned a classroom, midway through the year, the veteran teachers had stripped the room of most of the furniture. Two years later, she reported that she was disenchanted with teaching and was seeking other career opportunities.

Are You Old Enough to Be a Teacher?

Although many parents are supportive and welcoming, some may be skeptical about the ability of a beginning teacher, especially if the teacher is young. As a result, sometimes beginning teachers are treated disrespectfully and their actions and decisions are scrutinized and challenged by parents. One young teacher shared an embarrassing example:

> At the Fall open house I was doing a presentation about our science curriculum. In the middle of it, one of the parents raised his hand and asked, "Are you old enough to teach?" I responded, "I must be. They gave me a certificate." Everyone laughed and the rest of the session went well. But I was shaken and embarrassed. I knew that credibility with parents would be an issue.

Young female teachers we interviewed reported demeaning comments during conferences, such as "No wonder my son likes to stay after school" and "How come they didn't have teachers that looked like you when I went to school?"

Sometimes it is not only the parents who are responsible for diminishing the credibility of novice teachers. One young high school teacher reported, "The cafeteria workers treat me like I am a student. One of them loudly told me to go to the end of the line. The students laughed. I was so embarrassed."

Other beginning teachers report that they would like to know something about the parents of their students early in the year. If they know about them, they can anticipate some of the issues that may arise. They also want to know the school's procedure for communicating with parents. When do you send a note? How serious should the problem be before you call? As one said,

> I didn't know the procedure for communicating a problem or when and how to initiate contact with a parent. I would like to know some background on the parents and what kind of behavior to anticipate. Sometimes that helps to avert problems.

For some young teachers, it is difficult to understand and relate to the parents who avoid contact with the school. These parents may have had unfortunate experiences in their own school careers. Some parents may be overwhelmed with the demands of work, struggling with financial issues, or facing a family crisis. Beginning teachers sometimes mistake a parent's avoidance or inability to meet with them for a lack of interest in their child (Ryan, 1986).

Nonpublic Schools

Individuals who begin their careers in schools that espouse a particular religious faith have additional issues to address. In a study by Brock (1988), respondents reported that their preservice education, whether in public or private institutions, had not prepared them to address the religious dimensions of the school. Assignments to lead or participate in religious ceremonies, teach religion, and prepare students for sacraments provoked anxiety. One teacher remarked, "Because I was a member of the faith, everyone assumed that I knew how to do these things. I was too embarrassed to tell anyone that I didn't."

A young teacher we interviewed expressed similar sentiments when she said, "I had never said prayers before in school. I had to use post-a-notes [sic] to remind me to pray."

Overwhelmed

Interviews with beginning teachers reveal that they feel overwhelmed with the realities, complexities, and workload of teaching. One said, "I have so many papers to correct and forms to complete. I do school work every evening and all weekend. I no longer have a social life." A third-year teacher remarked, "I actually know what I am doing this year. My first and second year I was so overwhelmed by everything that I basically had no life other than teaching. I wondered how teachers had time for family and friends. It seemed like whenever I had some time, I was too tired." Another beginner remarked, "We had another meeting after school today. There went my work time. This means my take-home bag weighs 200 pounds again."

What are the cumulative effects of the struggles of the beginning teacher? According to Gordon (1991), by the end of the first year, attitudes about themselves, their profession, parents, and students are more negative than when they started. During each of the first two years, 15%, probably the most promising, leave the profession (Schlecty & Vance, 1983, cited in Glickman et al., 1995). By the end of seven years, one third to one half will have left teaching (Metropolitan Life cited in Glickman et al., 1995).

Summary

The realities of teaching cannot be grasped through preservice classes and student teaching, regardless of the excellence of the program. Support and assistance must continue throughout the first year and become part of an ongoing program of professional development. Considering the "sink or swim" approach used in many schools, the fact that many teachers remain past their first few years is a tribute to their tenacity and strong desire to teach. One second-year teacher gave the following advice at a gathering of first-year teachers, "Don't doubt yourself and don't quit the first year. It really does get better."

First-year teachers cannot be left in isolation and be expected to be successful. Principals must engage in a constant dialogue with the first-year teacher as a means of support and reinforcement.

Chapter 3

Role of the Principal

"I want to know what my principal considers good teaching and how my performance measures up." "I would like my principal to visit my classes and give me feedback." Beginning teachers want interaction with and affirmation from their principal.

Most beginners feel a sense of appreciation of and loyalty to the principal who was instrumental in hiring them. The principal provides the initial contact and introduction to the school, and may be the only person the novice knows in the community. Most beginning teachers feel a strong responsibility to meet the principal's expectations. In doing so, they need to identify the leadership style of the principal and determine how to respond to his or her authority (Ryan, 1986). Knowing that the principal decides whether their contracts should be renewed, beginning teachers desperately seek some sign that they are measuring up to expectations. Most remain uneasy and fearful until they receive feedback and affirmation from their principal. Clearly, beginning teachers view the principal as the important person in the induction process.

This chapter reviews the importance of the principal's role in assisting beginning teachers, principals' perceptions of beginning teachers, the induction efforts of principals, and induction strategies for principals.

The Power of the Principal

The relationship between teacher and principal is of major importance in a teacher's work life. For beginning teachers, the climate created by the principal will be a factor in their success or failure. The principal has the power to create a workplace that is pleasant or unbearable. Principals have the power to praise or criticize teaching, offer or withhold resources, determine schedules and assignments, provide or refuse support, and recommend or not recommend continuing employment. Their comments and body language speak loudly of their pleasure or displeasure (Lieberman & Miller, 1984).

A principal who treats teachers as competent professionals and is supportive of new ideas provides a pleasant workplace in which teachers feel free to be innovative. In a supportive climate such as this, beginning teachers will be encouraged to take risks and engage in self-discovery. A principal who is critical or punishing creates an unhappy climate in which teachers are afraid to try new ideas. In an unsupportive climate the chances of success for a beginning teacher are slim (Lieberman & Miller, 1984).

The Leadership of the Principal

How can principals help teachers at the start of their careers? The literature on beginning teachers acknowledges their unique need for assistance. However, it assigns no special role to the principal in meeting their needs; instead, it promotes the use of mentors and teams composed of school district and university personnel. Without a doubt, mentors, professors, and school district personnel provide valuable assistance to beginning teachers. However, the significance of the principal's role in the induction process should not be overlooked. Beginning teachers in a study by Brock (1988) were asked to describe what kinds of staff development were most helpful. The following items were ranked first and second on their list: (a) principal input on an informational basis and (b) planned and spontaneous observations by the principal, followed by an informative conference.

As the culture leader, the principal establishes the climate and vision for the school. It is the principal to whom novice teachers look for modeling and affirmation. What the principal says, does, and rewards indicate which behaviors are acceptable and which are unacceptable. The principal establishes and reinforces key values, beliefs, rituals, and social norms. The principal plays an important role in helping new teachers develop a sense of membership in the school. One veteran teacher in a new district explained it this way, "My greatest problem is the 'secrets' in the school. The principal and most of the faculty have been here many years. Many of the traditions and ways of doing things were never explained to me."

As instructional leader, the principal (a) provides the resources necessary to achieve school goals, (b) demonstrates knowledge and skills in curriculum and instruction, (c) is skilled in communicating expectations to staff, and (d) creates a visible presence in fostering the school's vision (Smith & Andrews, 1989). What the principal says and does establishes the level of expectations for students' learning, reveals which teaching methods are acceptable, and suggests whether or not risk taking is advisable. In the words of the beginning teachers, "The principal should express the expectations he has for students in the school. I need to know about the parameters of the grading system and expectation for lesson plans." "I would like to meet one-on-one with the principal during the first weeks of school so I can ask questions." "I think the principal should observe the new teacher early in the year—not as an evaluation but to provide feedback and assistance." "The real key for the principal is to keep new faculty members informed—communication!"

Why Should Principals Work With Beginning Teachers?

Research on effective schools describes exemplary principals as those who inspire members of the school community to achieve their maximum potential. The vision of such leaders is communicated and modeled through their behavior. The leader must communicate the vision so it becomes shared by those who can make it a reality. In this sense, the principal becomes a developer of human beings. Every staff member who is hired will either enhance or diminish the overall sense of vision for the school. According to Norris (cited in Hughes, 1994), the successful professional development and socialization of new faculty into the school's culture sustain and enhance the school's culture and vision. To this end, the role of the principal in working closely with beginning teachers is imperative.

What Expectations Do Principals Have?

Principals who have problems with beginning teachers mistakenly believe that colleges and universities turn out finished products. Those who are more successful understand that professional development and proficiency can take several years.

Brock and Grady (1996b) studied the expectations of principals in public and nonpublic schools regarding beginning teachers. Principals in public schools reported that they expected first-year teachers to demonstrate the following proficiencies: (a) a professional attitude, (b) adequate knowledge of subject areas, (c) good classroom management, and (d) effective communication skills. One principal summarized her expectations by saying,

> I expect them to work on a professional level in all respects. Obviously they'll make mistakes, but I encourage them to take risks in the classroom by attempting new approaches and strategies. I also expect them to be team players and find their roles as staff members.

The expectations reported by nonpublic school principals focused on the teacher's interaction with students. Principals reported that they expected teachers to treat students with dignity and respect, to believe that every child can learn, and to make every effort to help students succeed. Other expectations of nonpublic school principals included (a) a knowledge of subject area, (b) good interpersonal skills, (c) adequate instructional methods, (d) knowledge of classroom management, (e) commitment to the ministry of teaching, and (f) a commitment to grow professionally.

Many of the principals reported satisfaction with the preparation of the beginning teachers. One principal said, "I have worked with super first-year teachers." For those principals who expressed dissatisfaction, the areas mentioned most frequently were discipline and classroom management. One public school principal said, "Beginning teachers need to have as much classroom management as possible. They are very good in their academic areas but sometimes lack people skills." In addition to discipline issues, the work ethic concerned nonpublic school principals. One principal said, "At times I have been disappointed with their work ethic. They seem surprised by the amount of time and energy required of teachers." Another reported, "First-year teachers are not ready to put in the extra time and effort that is needed from them; young teachers seem to be self-centered."

Classroom management was mentioned by public and nonpublic school principals as the major problem for beginning teachers. Other problems noted were time management, creating feelings of stress, and being overwhelmed. A nonpublic school principal said, "[Beginning teachers] tell me that there is so much to do they often feel like they're in a black hole the first year." Another said, "The amount of time that [beginning teachers] are willing to commit to planning and preparation is often significant the first year."

Despite the problems, few of the principals expressed a reluctance to hire beginning teachers. Both public and private school principals agreed that beginning teachers brought in new ideas and positive energy. One added, "I believe that we are responsible for helping people new to the profession."

What Is the Principal's Role With Beginning Teachers?

What do principals see as their role with beginning teachers? Principals in a study by Cole (1993) reported a paradox between their responsibilities for evaluation and the need to establish nurturing relationships. They conceptualized their involvement as induction facilitator. And they saw themselves as the individuals who organized and orchestrated induction activities, shared their philosophy of education with newcomers, and provided information and encouragement. Vice-principals in the same study saw their role as supporter. They reported assuming primary responsibility for the provision of assistance to beginning teachers. Because they were new to administration, they had recently experienced some of the same feelings as beginning teachers and had empathy for them. Although they saw themselves in a nurturing role, they too had contradictions to address in the area of evaluation. In the secondary schools, the department heads reported providing more direct and immediate induction support. In general, findings of the study reiterated the dilemma of assistance versus assessment that plagues school administrators. In addition, administrators must determine how much support to offer without appearing to criticize or interfere.

Principals in a study by Brock and Grady (1996b) reported methods for assisting beginning teachers. The principals enumerated the usual array of formal strategies, such as visiting classrooms, providing feedback, providing mentors, and using formative and summative evaluation. Asked what strategies proved most successful, the nonpublic school principals reported that frequent, personal communication between principal and novice was the most effective measure. Mentors were also highly rated. Other strategies included keeping an open door policy, instructing novice teachers in reflective teaching methods, providing instruction in the school's classroom management program before the opening of school, and having novice teachers observe other teachers.

What Problems Are Within the Control of the Principal?

Principals have within their control many factors that cause failure for beginning teachers. One important factor is hiring. Obviously late resignations can disrupt this process. However, whenever possible, hiring needs to take place early enough for teachers to become oriented to the school and to adequately prepare for their classes; late appointments present problems for beginning teachers and principals, because neither has adequate time to prepare (Cole, 1993).

Kurtz (1983) suggests that the following factors often lead to failure: (a) improper teaching assignment, (b) a classroom isolated from the mainstream of the school, (c) inadequate resources and facilities, (d) not understanding expectations, and (e) inadequate supervision.

Teachers whose classrooms are isolated from the mainstream of the school are not socialized into the daily activities of the school. They have few opportunities to observe the behavior of master teachers. These beginners tend to display slower success rates. A classroom close to the mainstream of school activities provides information about what's going on in the school as well as opportunities for interacting with master teachers (Kurtz, 1987).

The chances for success are greater if novice teachers are assigned classes within the scope of their preparation and abilities. It is not uncommon for veteran teachers to divide up students and courses at the end of the year to ensure that newcomers get the most difficult students and the most undesirable courses (Kurtz, 1987). One of the first-year teachers we interviewed reported that all of the fifth-grade students who were diagnosed with attention deficit disorder and learning disabilities were in her classroom. The other two fifth-grade teachers had no students in their classes with special needs. Vittetoe (1977) reported in a study of beginning teachers that student teachers who took a first position in a situation dissimilar to that of their student teaching tended to be rated by their supervisors as less successful. For maximum success, beginning teachers need to be placed in courses and with students that they are prepared to teach.

When a teacher leaves a school, the senior faculty often strip the room of desirable furniture, equipment, and resources. The beginning teacher is left with a room bereft of furnishings. Beginning teachers have enough difficulties without withholding resources (Kurtz, 1983). One of the first-year teachers we interviewed spent most of her first year struggling to obtain enough chairs for the students in her classroom—hardly an ideal situation for a new teacher.

Too many outside assignments is another area that contributes to the failure of beginning teachers. Extra duties should be kept to a minimum until beginners have command of their teaching assignment (Kurtz, 1983). One beginner said,

> Time management is an issue for new people. We need a lighter load so we can focus on our classroom organization and preparation. I have a friend who is overloaded with activities and coaching every night. We can't keep up. The load for many first-year teachers is overwhelming.

Some beginning teachers fail because they are confused about district expectations. Principals are usually surprised to hear this: After all, they explained the expectations at the orientation, so why don't the teachers understand? The answer lies in the overwhelming amounts of information that new teachers are expected to digest in a brief time period (Kurtz, 1983). One first-year teacher said,

> The information overload is the biggest problem at the beginning of the school year. In one meeting we learned about certification, insurance, teacher organizations, handbooks, policies, and a lot of things I have already forgotten. Administrators need to understand that even though they have gone over everything once, they need to review it with us several times during the year and repeat it the next year.

The length of the induction process is often underestimated by principals. A fourth-year teacher verified how long the process can take when she said, "I actually know what I'm doing this year. My first and second year I was so overwhelmed. The third year was better and now I finally feel like I'm in control."

The final point made by Kurtz (1983) is that the principal is an important part of the induction process. A study of beginning teachers in urban schools by Chester (1992) supports the fact that the principal can control factors that mediate the first-year experience. The study concluded that principals can positively affect the success of beginning teachers by promoting opportunities for adult collaboration and providing administrator attention to the beginners.

According to Cole (1991), "the process of becoming a teacher depends on the development of the psychosocial aspects of the teacher self" (p. 5). Principals can provide opportunities for beginning teachers to experiment with various roles as they find their professional identity. A large part of establishing oneself as a teacher involves defining and organizing one's space. Novices need to have their ideas, attitudes, and behaviors validated and questions answered. They need to feel secure enough to take risks and engage in self-discovery. They need opportunities to form attachments and develop relationships with others. They need access to role models among their peers. Beginning teachers need a wide range of developmental opportunities within the community setting.

Support for the Principal

Principals recognize that beginning teachers need help, but many struggle with the mechanics of providing that help. Principals are often victims of the kind of work conditions that they are trying to change for their teachers. Professional isolation, fear of admitting problems and needing help are not limited to teachers. Principals often cover up concerns when they would like to discuss mutual problems with other administrators. In a study by Cole (1993), principals reported that they would like to know more about the needs of beginning teachers, participate in professional development activities related to teacher induction, and meet with other administrators to discuss issues related to induction.

A study by Wise and Holland (cited in Hughes, 1994) concluded that principals have a tacit understanding of their role in working with beginning teachers. They have clear beliefs and values regarding their responsibility to assist beginners but do not execute that role in administrative practice. The study suggests that principals need to (a) articulate their expectations to beginners, (b) create a plan and schedule a time to help beginning teachers, (c) work with novice teachers in creating and implementing realistic goals, and (d) model collaborative working behaviors for the new teachers.

How Do Principals Find the Time to Help?

Most principals want to help beginning teachers. They begin the year intending to assist, only to have unrelenting daily demands overshadow their intentions.

All principals have the same number of hours each day. Why do some find time to work with beginning teachers while others do not? The key is in planning. The principals who find the time know their priorities and allocate their time accordingly.

Assessing Time Spent

Examining time management strategies used by other principals may be helpful in finding time to work with beginning teachers. The following information suggests methods to use in assessing how you currently use your time as well as measures to curtail interruptions that interfere with priorities.

The first step in planning for the future is determining how you currently use your time. One way is to keep a daily log of all of your activities for a few days. Record the time that you started and stopped each activity. Second, put the log away and make a list of the supervisory activities that you believe deserve your attention. Allocate the percentage of time that each one deserves. Next, compare the actual use of time to the preferred use of time. With discrepancies identified, you can decide what changes need to be made in time allocation.

Taking Charge of Your Time

The next issue is realistically addressing the incidental activities, incidents, and interruptions that interfere with meeting priorities. A yearlong calendar of activities, a weekly calendar, and a daily list of priorities are essential. Set a daily schedule that includes the time you plan to interact with students, observe classrooms, return phone calls, meet with teachers and parents, and do paperwork. Without plans, a principal's time is easily taken up by every person who enters the office. List the things that you need to do for each day and check them off as they are completed. Obviously, emergencies may intervene, so plan an extra half hour or hour of flextime. If the time is not needed, consider it bonus time to catch up on a project (Luehe, 1989).

The school secretary should be your partner in establishing office procedures. Work out a system for fielding phone calls, handling or rerouting calls that do not require your attention, taking messages, sorting and prioritizing mail, setting appointments, and answering routine correspondence (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 1995; Luehe, 1989).

Visitors and meetings occupy a large block of time for many administrators. Have a policy for drop-in visitors. An open-door policy sounds good but having an appointment procedure makes more efficient use of your time because you can prepare for the visit and have necessary information available. Let visitors know the amount of time that you have to meet with them and adhere to it. Meetings should follow a set agenda and adhere to a strict timeframe. Let participants know that you expect them to be prepared for the meeting (Luehe, 1989).

Student discipline is another time consumer for many principals. Occasionally principals need to become involved in disciplinary actions with students. However, if this is the rule rather than the exception, perhaps the discipline plan and procedures need to be examined. Establish a student discipline plan in which stringent procedures are set for teacher referrals (Glickman et al., 1995).

Summary

A principal's most important supervisory role in the school is that of supervising instruction. By effectively supervising teachers, especially beginning teachers, the principal provides the best education possible to students. Finding the time to do that should be a priority.

Chapter 4

Orientation Starts Before the School Year Begins

Structure of the Induction Program

Effective induction programs use a developmental model with induction as the first stage of a teacher's career development. Beginning teachers are perceived as having the basic competencies and qualities to become effective teachers who will seek to develop and refine their skills. Professional growth occurs gradually over an extended period of time. Improvements are noted in subtle, rather than dramatic, changes. In the words of Meister (1990), the process of helping new teachers is "more like watching a tree grow" than "describing a violent thunderstorm" (p. 6).

Given the developmental nature of professional growth, a successful induction program is delivered in increments that are determined by the teacher's readiness to move to the next stage of development. The induction process is complicated by the inability to generalize what constitutes assistance. Assistance perceived as helpful to one new teacher may be unnecessary for another (Meister, 1990). Input from beginning teachers is clearly necessary when planning the content and structure of the program.

Successful induction programs use a format that generally includes the following components:

- A developmental philosophy
- A set of goals tailored to fit the context of the educational setting (Meister, 1990; Queensland Board of Teacher Registration, 1991; Runyan, 1990)
- A structure that provides year-round support beginning with preschool orientation and continuing throughout the induction period

The induction period varies according to the needs of the individual and the specific school setting (Runyan, 1990).

The following strategies and similarities in delivery of assistance are reported by Meister (1990):

- Assignment of mentors
- Interaction of the principal or supervisor with the teacher
- New teacher inservice courses, seminars, or workshops
- Opportunities for new teachers to observe veteran teachers
- Use of a systematic plan for individual professional development

Successful programs are uniquely individualized according to school settings, provide flexibility to respond to changing conditions and needs, use the staff and material resources available to them, and are administered by imaginative and skillful leaders.

The Orientation Phase

Most of the assistance needs of beginning teachers can be divided between issues that are critical early in the year and those that occur once the school year is underway. This chapter addresses recommendations for providing assistance for the beginning teacher from contract signing through the early weeks of the school year.

The following comments and questions are those of a recently graduated twenty-two-year-old seeking assistance from one of her professors:

> I've been offered a teaching contract and I'm excited but confused. I wish there was a course in life skills. I don't know how to proceed. I need someone to explain the provisions on this contract. They sent me all of these forms to fill out. What are income tax exemptions? Do I need this insurance? I have to find a place to live and buy a car. I don't know where or how to begin.

The Purpose of Orientation

Orientation is used to provide necessary information to the new teacher. At one time, principals mistakenly thought that orientation or transmission of information at the beginning of the year was all the assistance that teachers needed. We know today that the orientation period is just the beginning stage of the induction process. Although most principals use some form of orientation, it should never be the sole component of an induction program (Brock & Grady, 1996a).

Who Should Conduct Orientation?

As soon as a first-year teacher signs a contract, a support team needs to meet with the beginning teacher. The support team should consist of the principal, a mentor teacher, and, if possible, someone from a nearby university. In some large districts, central office personnel form a temporary assistance team to assist teachers moving from another geographic area until the teacher has been assigned to a specific school.

Personalized Orientation

The type and amount of support that is needed depend on the age, background, and previous experiences of the beginning teacher and whether the teacher is new to the area. Different school settings also influence the type of support that should be offered. With such diversity of people and school settings, it is apparent that induction programs need to be individualized (Runyan, 1990).

Teachers of all ages who are unfamiliar with the community require assistance in learning their way around, finding housing, and establishing medical, financial, and other personal services. Teachers whose entry into teaching coincides with entry into adulthood will need additional assistance with issues such as understanding the provisions of the teaching contract and the district's benefits packages. They need mentors to walk them through many of the processes and procedures that experienced adults take for granted.

Experienced teachers returning to education after a lapse of time, veteran teachers joining a new school, and mature beginning teachers have induction needs that are frequently overlooked or not adequately met. Often their maturity or previous experience evokes an erroneous perception that they need less help. Although their needs are somewhat different from those of a twenty-something beginner, they are new to the school and unfamiliar with the school setting. Beginning teachers who are mature need to be treated as beginning teachers; maturity does not compensate for inexperience in teaching. Individual needs must be individually assessed and addressed (Dinham, 1992).

All new teachers need to become acquainted with the school, teaching assignments, and preparing their classrooms. Ideally they should have access to their classroom during the summer to allow as much preparation time as possible to organize the physical space and plan for the year.

Orientation Meetings: Setting the Stage

Orientation meetings are likely to be well received when held in a welcoming, informal atmosphere in which information is presented slowly and ample time is allowed for questions. Information should be presented in small amounts and repeated more than once. When too much information is given during the first few weeks, many details escape the new teachers. The discrepancies often create misunderstandings between principals who know the information was presented and the teachers who say that they were not informed (Dinham, 1992). One beginning teacher wrote, "We need to have the same information presented again at the beginning of the second year. Much of it doesn't make an impact the first year because we have so much information to learn."

Focus of the First Meeting

Clearly, the most important information for new teachers is knowing what courses or subjects they will teach, who the students are, what materials they are expected to use, the physical layout of the building, the basic procedures in the school, and the names and roles of their colleagues. Only when they are comfortable with this information and have had time to prepare their classrooms will they be ready to learn about the larger scope of the school and district.

Suggestions for the initial meeting include the following:

- Introductions of the faculty and staff
- A tour of the building and campus
- Locations of resources
- Procedures for obtaining clerical, custodial, and maintenance services

To avoid information overload at the meeting, teachers can be given a packet of printed information to read at their convenience before the next scheduled meeting. The topics might include these:

- The school mission and philosophy
- Chain of command
- Curriculum
- School calendar
- Beginning-of-the-year activities
- Required meetings
- Responsibilities
- Daily schedules
- School routines and procedures
- Record keeping
- Fiscal policies
- Discipline policy and procedures

This printed material can be read at a pace comfortable for the teacher and scheduled for discussion at a later meeting. Having the information in printed form provides a handy reference that can be read and reread as the information is needed.

At the end of the first group meeting, the teachers are introduced to their specific teaching assignment by their mentors. Mentors might escort the teachers to their individual classrooms, provide a class list, show them their class schedule, a school calendar, their textbooks and materials, and building emergency information. Experienced teachers in the same grade levels and subject areas could be available to provide information and answer questions.

During the orientation period, teachers should be allowed access to the building. Mentors should be encouraged to work with the new teacher in organizing the classroom and planning for the year. Beginning the year with plans and a well-organized classroom is essential to the efficient use of the teacher's time and the establishment of an appropriate learning climate (Hatch, 1995; Palmer, 1995).

The Second Orientation Meeting

The follow-up orientation meeting might include these elements:

- Information on the student body and community
- Basic school routines and procedures
- Grading policies
- Record keeping
- The school's calendar
- Beginning-of-school activities
- The school's discipline policy

Additional topics that might be considered include classroom management, discipline strategies, and stress reduction.

Because classroom management and discipline have been identified as critical areas for beginning teachers, this is a topic that should be given special attention. Beginning teachers need to start the year with a classroom management plan, a set of classroom rules and consequences, and a clear understanding of what constitutes a teacher-student relationship.

Stress is another important topic to discuss in the orientation meeting. Beginning teachers tend to become so focused on their work that they eliminate relaxation and social activities from their lives. A presentation on the necessity of health maintenance during the early days of teaching would seem appropriate. Hearing that good nutrition, exercise, adequate rest, and a "life outside of school" will be the keys to their endurance may motivate the new teachers to take preventive measures to stay healthy (Lunde, 1995).

At the end of the second orientation meeting the mentors can work with the new teachers in preparing for the first days of school. The beginning teacher will be anxious to prepare for the opening weeks. Issues of concern will include the inexperienced teacher's reception from parents, students' responses, and what lessons to teach during the initial period. Mentors can assist the beginning teacher in preparing introductory letters to parents and welcome letters to students, and deciding the structure and content of the first weeks' classes.

Follow-Up Meetings

Once a level of comfort has been established regarding their schools and immediate teaching roles, beginning teachers will be ready to learn about the school district structure and the role that they play within the structure. Follow-up meetings can provide additional information on school and district curricula, philosophy and policies, organizational structure, and communication channels. The information provided in the printed handouts can be discussed. Time should be planned to address questions.

During the orientation period and first weeks of school, new teachers will be anxious to form friendships and feel like a part of the group. Mentors might encourage and organize small, informal gatherings and lunches with veteran faculty.

The Role of the Principal in Orientation

The principal's support is essential to the success of an induction program, and is evident in the priority that induction is given and how well induction efforts are coordinated (Dinham, 1992). The principal is the instructional leader of the school. Even though mentors have been assigned to perform day-to-day induction functions, the principal should schedule time throughout the year to interact with the new teachers.

New teachers want to know the principal's goals for the school and the expectations for teaching and student learning. A clear understanding of what constitutes effective teaching performance in the specific school setting is essential. Because it is likely that the principal is the person who will evaluate them, knowing what is expected in areas such as discipline, grading, time management, instructional methods, and student achievement is an important consideration (Brock & Grady, 1996a).

Principals should coordinate the efforts of all personnel and provide a strong, united program. When mentors and other supervisory personnel emphasize different goals, confusing and contradictory messages are received. Principals can diffuse the overwhelming feelings that new teachers experience by coordinating with mentors to focus beginning teachers on a limited set of goals (Meister, 1990).

Along the same lines, principals can set limits on the extracurricular activities of the new teachers. Beginning teachers are eager to participate and feel accepted. As a result, they often volunteer for too many duties. In some cases, administrators assign too many duties. Principals can reduce beginning teachers' stress by assigning a minimum number of duties for the first year and suggesting to new teachers that they not volunteer for additional activities.

Other problem areas within the control of the principal arise in the workplace. Some beginning teachers struggle with inappropriate class assignments, heavy workloads, and courses outside of their preparation. Regardless of their quality, induction programs are not designed to counteract problems that arise from these situations (Huling-Austin, 1989). These situations are within the principal's power. The teacher's assignment should match the teacher's areas of preparation. A "realistic" number of students should be assigned. To maximize the possibility of success, the principal should assign a paraprofessional and reduce the number of students, classes, or preparations.

Rooms in remote locations with inadequate furnishings also contribute to the problems of new teachers. The principal can position the new teachers' classrooms close to the mainstream of the school and make certain that they are equipped with adequate furniture and materials.

Principals can further reduce the isolation of the first-year teacher by arranging a schedule that allows time for teachers within a grade level to share ideas. The newcomer will learn from sharing experiences and also become more quickly socialized into the school's culture and the teaching profession (Cooledge, 1992).

Summary

An orientation before school begins provides a baseline of information, adequate time for planning, and a period of socialization into the school culture. After a successful orientation, new teachers will begin the year confidently and well prepared for the opening days and weeks. However, orientation and the early weeks of school are only the beginning; the weeks and months ahead present many challenges and new needs for assistance.

Chapter 5

What a Good Induction Program Looks Like

What Is Developmental Induction?

Developmental induction is a sequenced set of professional growth opportunities delivered in accordance with the needs of the recipients. Activities are situationally driven and designed to support the personal and professional growth of beginning teachers (Runyan, 1991). Teachers are viewed as learners who are beginning a long-term professional quest for excellence. The focus of the induction program is on the teachers' questions, needs, and concerns. Their development, viewed as the combined responsibility of the school community, occurs within a collegial context (Dilworth & Imig, 1995).

What Are the Commonalities in Philosophical Orientation?

Developmental induction is based on the following premises: Beginning teachers (a) possess a set of skills, (b) have the desire to be good teachers, and (c) seek improvement only when they perceive a need to change and want to do so. Using this orientation, induction activities are provided to assist teachers in developing and refining the skills they perceive as necessary for success. Assistance is individualized according to a perceived need, rather than determined solely by an evaluator or a predetermined notion of what beginning teachers need to learn. The vehicles for providing assistance are varied in terms of settings and delivery systems (Runyan, 1991).

Adult learning theory underlies much of the philosophical base. Adults commit to learning when they view something as important and relevant to their personal and professional needs. Beginning teachers want information that they can apply to their immediate work setting. The best chances for professional growth occur when participants perceive a need and the information provided is relevant to their personal and professional interests.

What Do Developmental Programs Have in Common?

Although induction programs vary according to the contextual demands and constraints of individual schools, programs that are developmental in nature have a well-defined set of goals that are oriented to meet the situational needs of beginning teachers. They provide continuous yearlong support within a collegial, supportive atmosphere (Runyan, 1991).

In developmental induction programs, teachers are encouraged to attempt creative teaching ideas and develop a personalized style of teaching (Chester, 1992). Development of the psychosocial aspects of teaching is perceived as the key to teacher development. Instead of striving to perfect sophisticated development programs that teach proper strategies, schools concentrate on the development of helping communities (Cole, 1991). Healthy schools have the best chance for creating successful induction programs. Grafting an induction program onto an unhealthy school culture yields limited success (Wideen & McNally, 1992).

Schools that use developmental induction motivate beginning teachers to control their professional growth by reflecting on their teaching, assessing their needs, and selecting opportunities for assistance. Beginning teachers are empowered to control their own professional development (Runyan, 1991).

What Are the Goals of Developmental Induction?

Although induction programs are founded on a philosophical base that embraces the creation of a positive, collegial support program for beginning teachers, the rationale for creating the programs may vary:

- Retaining quality teachers
- Enhancing the professional competence and instructional ability of teachers
- Improving the school climate by stimulating professional growth for the entire faculty (Runyan, 1991)

Goals are derived from the philosophical base and rationale for the program. The goals and subsequent scope of the program are influenced by the school's size, geographical structure, and available financial resources. Possible program goals may include the following:

- Providing a transition from preservice preparation through the first year of teaching
- Promoting the personal and professional well-being of beginning teachers
- Retaining competent teachers
- Providing additional knowledge, skills, and attitudes
- Assisting beginning teachers with individual needs and concerns
- Building a foundation for continued professional growth through structured contact with mentors, administrators, and veteran teachers
- Helping beginning teachers develop their own self-image, positive attitude, and concern for students
- Improving teaching performance (Fox & Singletary, 1986; Huling-Austin, 1986b; Runyan, 1991)

When setting goals, Huling-Austin (1986b) cautions that induction programs should not be considered the panacea for all of the problems inherent in retaining quality teachers. First of all, induction programs cannot prevent all of the problems usually associated with transitions into a new profession. For instance, even the best induction programs cannot assist beginning teachers in functioning satisfactorily in extremely troubled schools. Second, induction programs cannot create highly competent teachers unless beginning teachers have the requisite abilities and attributes to become successful teachers. Third, induction programs that are designed to provide emotional support without fostering teachers' development and improvement are missing the mark. Last, factors such as salary, workplace conditions, professional status, and limited advancement opportunities may have a more powerful long-term impact on teacher retention than the influence of an induction program. One needs to be realistic about what can be accomplished through induction programs and set goals accordingly.

Organizational Structure

To be successful, an induction program must have the support and involvement of all who influence and direct the operation of the school (Camp & Heath-Camp, 1991). Gordon (1991) reminds us that the most important ingredients in any assistance program are the people who share their time and talents. Depending on the structure of the school district, participants may include combinations of the following:

- Teacher educators
- State agencies
- Superintendents and other administrators at the district level
- Central office supervisors
- School board members
- The local education association
- Personnel from educational service centers
- Building principals
- Veteran teachers

Collegial support exists only when all participants perceive a need, agree on the process, and are enthusiastic about participating. The local school or school district should determine which stakeholders will participate and clearly define their respective roles and responsibilities.

Gordon (1991) suggests the development of a written plan consisting of the following components:

- Definitions of the key terms used in the plan
- A statement of purpose
- The program rationale that explains the need, specific goals, and objectives
- A chart showing who is responsible for the accomplishment of each goal
- Resources that will be needed
- The criteria for mentor selection and training
- A process for program evaluation

To ensure the permanency of the program, necessary funding should become part of the school's budget. Information about the assistance program needs to be disseminated to the community and school personnel. The plan itself should be made available to interested parties. Procedures should be determined to report on the progress of the program throughout the year as well as reporting program outcomes at the end of the school year.

Program Delivery

Needs Assessment

Once the program has been designed and the participants selected and trained, the focus turns to the heart of the matter: providing assistance for beginning teachers. Beginning teachers will have unique needs; the specifics of what information is needed and the most suitable form of delivery can be determined only after they have joined the school (Fox & Singletary, 1986; Gordon, 1991; Huling-

Austin, 1986a; O'Dell, 1986). However, a needs assessment before school opens will provide a baseline from which to begin (Fox & Singletary, 1986; Gordon, 1991). Assessments should be administered periodically throughout the year to update information (Huling-Austin, 1986a; Ondak, 1996). Beginning teachers cycle through low points in the middle of the first semester and early in the second semester. Surveys should be administered at these times to accurately determine specific needs (Ondak, 1996).

Welcome Beginning Teachers

Celebrate the arrival of beginning teachers. Invite dignitaries, take photographs, and have luncheons, dinners, or receptions. Beginning teachers need to feel welcomed into the school and valued by their new colleagues (Gordon, 1991).

Introduce Mentors and New Teachers

Many schools today are adding a mentorship component to their induction programs. Skilled and experienced teachers who have the time and a desire to work with beginning teachers are selected. After a training period, each mentor is assigned to an entry-level teacher. The purpose of the relationship is to provide support and assistance to a new teacher throughout his or her first year. Mentors and new teachers should be introduced as soon as possible after the new teacher has been hired (Talbert, Camp, & Heath-Camp, 1991).

Assistance for the First Week

The first week of teaching is critical to a beginning teacher's success. The best way to ensure success is by assisting the beginner in classroom organization and lesson preparation. Mentors can help with classroom arrangements, securing materials, establishing rules and procedures for behavior, and working on lesson plans for the first few days. Mentors should be available to answer questions and ready to provide frequent support during the first days and weeks.

Ongoing Assistance

Unlike some assistance programs that stop after the first week of school, developmental induction programs provide ongoing support throughout the full induction period. The length of induction time is determined by the needs of the beginning teacher and the scope of the program. A wide range of strategies is available for use and is dependent on the program's design and goals, the expertise of the personnel, available resources, and beginners' needs. The following strategies may prove effective.

Periodic Meetings With the Principal

Beginning teachers report that information from the principal is critical to their understanding of their role and responsibilities as teachers. They want the principal to observe them and provide affirmation that their teaching is acceptable (Brock & Grady, 1996b). Principals are the best source for imparting information about the school's uniqueness, the principal's values, and where beginning teachers fit into the school's picture (Sergiovanni, 1995).

Informational Meetings

Information given during preschool orientations needs to be repeated and expanded throughout the school year. New information needs to be introduced. Periodic meetings with beginning teachers provide time to impart information and answer questions (Gordon, 1991).

Support Seminars and Skills Training

Beginning teachers appreciate seminars held throughout the school year to discuss concerns, explore instructional techniques, learn skills for collaborating with parents, and investigate management topics (Gordon, 1991; Runyan, 1991). Sessions should include a presentation of the theory underlying each skill, a demonstration of the skill, practice and feedback, and coaching within a clinical setting (Gordon, 1991).

Peer Observations

Allowing beginning teachers release time to visit, observe, and acquire material from other teachers helps broaden their perspectives and provides role modeling (Gordon, 1991; Runyan, 1991).

Coaching

The mentor or principal often uses clinical supervision when observing the beginning teacher's classroom. He or she conducts a pre-observation to determine the lesson's objectives, observes the lesson, analyzes content, and provides feedback to the beginning teacher during a post-observation conference (Gordon, 1991; Schlecty, 1985).

Videotaping

The mentor or principal videotapes a beginning teacher's lesson. Together they review the video and discuss instructional strengths and problems revealed (Gordon, 1991).

Co-teaching

The mentor and beginning teacher co-teach a single lesson or a unit of instruction. This provides the beginning teacher with an opportunity to both be observed as a teacher and observe an experienced teacher (Gordon, 1991). Journal writing is one means to promote ongoing reflection. Another method is to carry on an intensive case study of an at-risk student in which the beginning teacher collects data and analyzes the information, culminating in an action plan designed to assist the student (Gordon, 1991).

Portfolio Development

Portfolios allow beginning teachers to visually observe and record their professional development. Suggestions for portfolio contents include (a) philosophy, (b) expectations, (c) course syllabi, (d) unique teaching units, (e) assessment material, (f) formal evaluations, and (g) special activities (Gordon, 1991; Runyan, 1991).

Social Functions

Social functions held throughout the year provide opportunities for beginning teachers to develop collegial relationships and break down the isolation of teaching (Gordon, 1991; Runyan, 1991).

Newsletters

Newsletters designed for beginning teachers communicate program information, instructional tips, staff activities, and beginning teachers' successes (Runyan, 1991).

College Courses

College courses specifically designed for beginning teachers provide a forum for discussion and expand the knowledge base of the teachers (Fox & Singletary, 1986; Ondak, 1996; Runyan, 1991).

Summary

Beginning teachers need to have reasonable control and exert some influence over the circumstances and events of their work. They need to experience success and they need to receive recognition for their successes (Sergiovanni, 1995). They also deserve assistance with the issues that they determine are important.

Beginning teachers have professional concerns that occur in a loose chronological sequence as they move from survival issues to the discovery of the art of teaching. Yet each concern needs to be addressed situationally as these teachers express their needs (Runyan, 1991).

Concerns in the personal domain are equally important. Listening to the beginning teacher, supporting their morale, and assisting them, if possible, is essential. If they do not personally adjust to the teaching profession, the chances for long-term professional development are diminished (Runyan, 1991).

Developmental induction programs can fulfill those needs by identifying and meeting the instructional and noninstructional needs of beginning teachers. The focus of developmental induction programs is to develop the personal strengths of the beginning teacher without stifling idealism and legislating dependency on accepted methods and materials. Giving voice to the professional ideas and concerns of beginning teachers makes it more probable that schools will retain quality teachers and enhance their professional development (Runyan, 1991).

Chapter 6

Welcoming the New Teacher Into the School Culture

The Strength of School Cultures

Schools exist as distinct entities nestled within the context of a community and imbued with individual traditions, rituals, and shared stories and meanings. Every school has observable routine behaviors defined by unwritten and powerful rules. The interactions of the school's members with each other and with the school's environment constitute the school's culture (Brock & Grady, 1995; Cole, 1991; Sergiovanni, 1995). A school's culture is not something that the school possesses. Instead, the culture is its very essence, a tapestry of meanings developed throughout the years of the school's existence. As new teachers join the school, the views of newcomers are shaped by, and thus perpetuate, the school's culture (Hanson, 1996).

How Does a Culture Originate?

A school's organizational structure consists of both a formal structure and an informal structure. The formal structure consists of a governing system and stated expectations. The informal structure addresses the realities of daily operations and lets members know the specifics of "the way we do things here." Teachers and administrators devise plans and strategies to solve specific school situations. As a body of solutions works consistently, the solutions become part of the routine. Often the behaviors are repeated long after they are needed and sometimes when they are no longer the best choices. The routine behaviors become so much a part of the culture that permeates the school that its members are unconscious of their existence. Teachers have no idea where or why a behavior began and thus have no rational explanation for the occurrence of repetitive behaviors. When questioned, they explain, "That's the way we've always done that," or "That's just the way it is."

Despite the unconscious nature of the culture, the firmness of the beliefs is felt by anyone who attempts to change established behaviors (Hanson, 1996). A novice teacher reported,

> My mentor told me that I needed to reorganize the morning routine that I use with my first graders. She noticed that I had been engaging the children in discussions when they arrived in the morning instead of following the morning format used by the other teachers. When I asked what was wrong with my approach, the mentor responded, "That's just not the way we do things here." Apparently I broke an unwritten rule that designates how all teachers do opening exercises.

The new teacher disagreed with the wisdom of the approach and believed that her way was more appropriate. However, she conformed to the conventional expectations of the school.

. The two key components of organizational culture are *norms* and *assumptions.* Norms are standards that the school institutionalizes and enforces. They express what is and is not acceptable behavior for group members. Underlying the norms are the assumptions that members share. Unlike values, which can be discussed and debated, assumptions are understood and accepted as true and nonnegotiable.

Assumptions are rarely talked about, yet they are unconsciously accepted and provide the bedrock for the development of norms. Organizational culture can thus be described as a body of solutions that a group has adopted as the correct procedure for daily activities and problems. These solutions eventually become assumptions about the way schools should operate and teachers should behave. Eventually, the assumptions drop out of conscious awareness, leaving unquestioned repetitive behaviors as testimonials to their existence (Owens, 1995).

How Does Culture Manifest Itself?

Although the culture itself is invisible, the manifestations of it are visible and can be examined. Such manifestations include the building itself, artifacts and documents, and human actions and speech (Owens, 1995). A school's culture can thus be determined by observing the routine behaviors, norms, artifacts, documents, and school climate to discover the underlying assumptions that hold a community together (Owens, 1995; Shein, 1984; cited in Hart & Bredeson, 1996). The most obvious place to begin is the school's philosophy and written documents. They provide a broad framework of the school's purpose and mission and are central to one's understanding of the overall operation of the school.

Routine behaviors include regular patterns of interactions between members of the school community. The formality of greetings, methods used when initiating communications with the principal, and manner in which visitors are greeted are examples of routine patterns of behavior. Imagine the dismay of one beginning teacher who overheard other teachers describing her as "unfriendly." When she asked a veteran colleague why she was perceived that way, the teacher responded, "Because you don't greet others when you pass them in the halls." With careful observation, she noted that faculty and staff made a point of calling out a cheery "good morning" or "good afternoon" and addressing each person by name whenever they passed in the hallways. Apparently she had failed to be consistent in perpetuating a simple routine behavior deemed to be important in the school's culture.

Norms are expectations for behaviors that have been in existence for long periods of time. Initially, the behaviors fulfilled a need or solved a problem. As time passed, the repetitive behavior became routinized and integrated within the school's culture. Sometimes the behaviors remain relevant and functional. In other instances, the behaviors may be pointless, dysfunctional, or even destructive, yet remain behavioral norms for the school. One beginning teacher reported a behavioral norm in her school that created a dilemma for her. The expectation of the veteran teachers was that "good teachers arrive at school early and remain long after dismissal." The beginning teacher had small children at home, so she left immediately after fulfilling her contract requirements. The veterans responded by silently chastising her with raised eyebrows and exchanging knowing looks—unspoken, yet strong expressions of disapproval. Although the contract stated that teachers could leave, the keepers of the culture obviously disapproved.

A significant part of a school's culture is the dominant values that are espoused by the teachers, administration, and parents. The focus may be high academic standards, ethnic diversity, athletics, or the fine and performing arts. Some schools adopt slogans, distribute bumper stickers, or have posters displayed in the building proclaiming their values. The contents of the trophy case and bulletin boards celebrate the students' accomplishments. The celebrations and rituals of a school acknowledge successes. Occasionally the values professed are not the same as those receiving acclaim and financial support. A lack of congruence between values professed and those supported is confusing for beginning teachers.

Most schools have handbooks stating explicit rules and procedures. Beginning teachers find these most helpful as they orient themselves to the school. The difficulty lies in the maze of unwritten rules that are more critical than those in the official handbook. The cultural dimensions of the school are more likely to govern what the people do and think than the official policies and procedures. Teachers are more likely to teach according to the prescribed norms of the culture than to directives by administrators or the official management system of a school district (Sergiovanni, 1995). This poses a problem for beginning teachers because these rules are not written down anywhere. Because the rules are an unconscious part of the school's operation, even veterans who want to help forget to mention them. As one beginning teacher said,

> It's as though the veterans have a secret agenda that they aren't sharing. This week, I was chastised for dismissing my

> students out of the wrong door and letting them use the wrong drinking fountain and restroom. How was I supposed to know that these things were so important?

Hart and Bredeson (1996) describe four levels of culture that one might find in a school:

- Cultural elements common to schools in general
- Cultural elements characteristic of a particular school and community
- Cultural elements common to a specific kind of school
- Cultural elements unique to the people who compose the school community

The cultural levels described here are important considerations for beginning teachers. Although most teachers spend approximately seventeen years as students in school, the culture they experience is that of students. The view from the other side of the desk is quite different and often surprising. Beginning teachers frequently express shock that a world so familiar can appear so alien.

Some beginning teachers contend with not only the alien world of teaching but also the alien world of another culture. Most have a narrow view of school cultures, limited to the scope of their personal experiences. If their first position is in a school unlike that which they attended as a student or experienced as a student teacher, the cultural differences may compound an already stressful entrance into teaching. Before school starts, preliminary preparation should begin regarding community factors, such as geographic issues, socioeconomic conditions, and ethnicity.

A culture shock may also await the beginning teacher educated in nonpublic schools who assumes a position in a public school. The same is true of the novice educated in public schools who begins a teaching career in a nonpublic school. Unfortunately, this cultural difference is often overlooked by administrators. Principals with limited experiences in the cultural differences of public and nonpublic schools may not realize the cultural impact felt by beginning teachers. A study by Brock (1988) revealed that beginning teachers experienced anxiety and problems in adjusting to the religious dimensions of Catholic schools. Beginning teachers revealed their frustrations in interviews with comments such as "Because I was a Catholic, everyone assumed that I knew how to plan liturgies, but I did not attend a Catholic school as a child and did not have these experiences." Some expressed frustration with the expectation that, because they were Catholic, they would know how to teach religion without any assistance or direction. Another teacher added, "I didn't go to a Catholic school and I have no idea how to model Catholic values. So I just teach the subjects. I've never had the opportunity to watch anyone teach a class that incorporates Catholic values." Some colleges may offer programs designed specifically for teachers entering public or nonpublic schools. However, they are the exceptions because most universities provide generic preservice education in teacher training. The underlying assumption of teacher training programs is that the school and school district will socialize the newcomer in the specific school culture.

How Can We Learn About a School's Culture?

Corcoran (1981) described the predicament faced by beginners as the "condition of not knowing" (p. 20). Regardless of the excellence of the beginner's preservice preparation, the novice enters a world of unknowns. The school culture, rituals, and procedures are foreign. The students, parents, faculty, and administrators are strangers. The novice is faced with uncertainty and is unsure of where and to whom to turn. The expectation that novices are supposed to be knowledgeable and competent professionals adds to their panic. Beginning teachers are afraid to admit not knowing, and afraid to act and make a mistake. Some succumb to shock and paralysis, unable to transfer the skills previously mastered in college (Corcoran, 1981).

One aspect of school culture that is readily apparent to beginning teachers is the school's climate. The cleanliness and maintenance of the building and grounds, the accessibility of parking, the attractiveness of the entrance to the school, and the friendliness of the office staff create lasting impressions. The interactions of students, teachers, and staff reveal the level of respect. The presence of student work, recognitions, and trophies in the halls send a message about what the faculty, administration, and parents value. Negative messages are clearly and unforgettably transmitted. If a new teacher visits the school and finds no available parking, front doors that are barely identifiable, and secretaries who point vaguely down a hall toward the location of a room, a strong negative message is transmitted. Signs of negativity and disrespect within the school indicate that the climate has gone sour.

Schools also break into subcultures organized around specific issues such as personal preferences (smokers versus nonsmokers) or work-related preferences (the traditional style teachers versus the nontraditional). Subcultures may even form because of ethnicity, age, or gender. Sometimes administrators create subcultures by favoring certain groups of teachers. Whatever the reason, the more subcultures that emerge in a school, the more fragmented and dysfunctional the school organization becomes. In a 1992 case study, Chester described the value of high levels of collaboration with other faculty and the consequences of low levels of cooperation. One of the teachers studied was a member of a dysfunctional faculty team with low levels of collaboration. She became increasingly dissatisfied and suffered diminished belief in her own ability to be an effective teacher. Another teacher who participated in a highly collaborative setting flourished in her teaching and exhibited a positive attitude.

As beginning teachers are socialized into the teaching profession, they identify role models, form relationships, and begin to establish their own teaching identity. In schools where subcultures have fragmented the organizational culture, beginners experience confusion and disillusionment (Hanson, 1996). When a beginning teacher who spent her first three years teaching in a fragmented and dysfunctional climate was interviewed, she said, "The teachers, secretary, and even the principal gossiped and made fun of students and each other. I hated going to the teachers' lounge. The conversations were negative and unprofessional." Her frustrations led her to pursue a degree outside the teaching profession.

What Makes an Effective School Culture?

Successful schools have strong cultures aligned with a vision generated and sustained by the school community. The teachers and administrators are guided in a common direction by norms that determine what should be accomplished and how it should be accomplished. The culture, once established, provides a source of significance and meaning for the school community, one that socializes its members in thought and behavior (Sergiovanni, 1994).

Goodlad (1985) reported that cultural differences correlate with the degree of satisfaction expressed by members of the school community. The more successful schools had higher supportive relationships between principals and teachers. The principals and teachers worked cohesively on schoolwide issues that provided a sense of ongoing self-renewal for the school. Little's 1991 study supports the view that the most influential staff development occurs in schools where there is a prevailing norm of collegiality. The topic of collegiality and its effect on the success of beginning teachers will be further explored in a subsequent chapter.

How Do Leaders Create an Effective Culture?

The principal plays a pivotal role in creating and nurturing a positive school culture. Teachers, especially beginning teachers, pay close attention to the principal's behavior. Principals communicate what they value and deem important by what they pay attention to, comment on, ask about, praise, and criticize. Another way principals' values are communicated is through the response and decisions that they make during crisis situations; core values are revealed in times of conflict. A third way is through modeling. Principals have an opportunity to express values by modeling the values they profess. Principals who act on their beliefs send a powerful message. A fourth mechanism is through the allocation of rewards. Which accomplishments and deeds are rewarded and which go unnoticed sends a message to teachers, particularly beginning teachers, about what is valued. Finally, the criteria for selection and dismissal of personnel send a message. Principals have opportunities to influence culture by selecting and promoting individuals who possess particular values, skills, and traits. The criteria used for dismissal also reveal a set of values (Schein, 1985, cited in Yukl, 1989).

Principals need to monitor the school's culture. If they are not aware of the positive and negative aspects of the culture, the culture will manage them. If the school's culture becomes dysfunctional, leading to destructive and ineffective behaviors, the leader must be aware and provide guidance that redirects the culture into a more positive path, one that promotes constructive behavior (Hanson, 1996).

Preparing for an orientation and induction program provides a unique opportunity for administrators and key teachers to examine the nuances of their school's culture. The process of identifying underlying values and premises, unwritten behaviors and rules, leads to intense examination of routine behaviors otherwise overlooked. Through this process, irrelevant and possibly dysfunctional behaviors and routines may be identified and discarded.

Socializing the Beginning Teacher

The process of teacher socialization is an interplay between a new teacher and the professional context of a particular school environment. It is a period of personal as well as professional development. The professional socialization process actually began in preservice education classes as students internalized the beliefs and behaviors that their professors deemed important for successful teachers. College education classes mold assumptions and perceptions about what it means to be a teacher, what students and schools are like, appropriate teaching methods, and the ethics involved in teaching. Entering the profession, the new teachers check previously learned beliefs with those manifested in the school. They adapt, just as they did in college, to the invisible power wielded by the culture. They test their limits, discovering new abilities and shortcomings. They experience the thrills of success and the disappointment of failures. They seek new friendships, personal as well as collegial, unsure of how they fit into the social picture of the school (Owens, 1995; Veenman, 1984). Beginning teachers who enter a school culture in which the teachers share common goals and work collegially will likely enjoy a successful first year. Beginners who enter a dysfunctional and fragmented school culture are exposed to isolation and negativity. According to Day (1959), they will experience a drastic change in attitude after their first six months, likely accompanied by discouragement.

School cultures do not make adaptations for beginning teachers. In fact, the presence of beginners may create some unrest until the veteran teachers decide that the newcomer poses no threat to the existing norms. Successes for the beginners depend on how well they identify the nuances of the school's culture and adapt to them. In doing so, beginners need to exert intense effort to help them understand the school's culture, the underlying values, and the unwritten expectations, behaviors, and routines.

Cole (1991) argues that the best way to orient beginning teachers is to provide a wide range of developmental activities within a community setting in which beginning teachers feel welcome and valued. Her theory is that these beginners would thus adopt and perpetuate the norms of community spirit, providing an ongoing positive community-based culture for the school.

A study of urban teachers by Chester (1992) supports that theory. Chester concluded that schools could control three factors that influence a beginning teacher's self-efficacy beliefs—namely, (a) the opportunity for teachers to collaborate with other adults, (b) the amount of time and attention that administrators provide for beginning teachers, and (c) prompt feedback from administrators after observations. Teachers who experienced these factors reported more positive changes in efficacy beliefs than teachers in schools in which the factors were absent. Chester's study supports the premise that schools do have control over alterable factors that can create a climate that fosters success for beginning teachers.

The principal clearly plays an important part in the socialization of the teacher. An important task of the principal is helping the new teacher develop a sense of membership and active participation in school activities (Hughes, 1994). New teachers need to learn not only the bureaucratic and nuts-and-bolts information but also the social and cultural norms of the school. The culture of the school has a greater impact on what people think and do than the official management policies (Sergiovanni, 1995). In a study of the subjective reality of beginning teachers, Lee (1994) discovered that perceptions of the social and cultural factors of the school had a greater influence on novices than the school's formally stated goals. The study suggests that induction programs derived from studies of generic problems of beginning teachers are usually ineffective because they lack the cultural reality of the specific school.

Effective induction programs are designed within the context of the school's culture and are the first segment of a larger total staff development program. To identify the culture of a school, Schein (1985, cited in Yukl, 1989) in Sergiovanni (1995) suggests examining the school's history, beliefs, assumptions, values, norms, and standards. Beginning teachers need to know the history of the school, its traditions, heroes, heroines, and myths. They need to understand the beliefs and assumptions of the teachers, the understanding they share relating to school structure, what constitutes good teaching, the relationship teachers and students should have, their beliefs about discipline, and what part parents should play in school life. Beginners want to know what is valued by the teachers and principals, and what values underlie decisions and problem solving. Sharing examples of accepted and rewarded ways of doing things lets the beginners know the norms and standards and how to become a successful teacher in the school. The payoff will be successful beginning teachers who influence and contribute to a positive and effective school culture.

Principals should develop a profile of "how things are done here" for new teachers. This portrait should be developed by all the school's personnel. It is possible that the process and presentation may be humorous as individuals note the dimensions of uniqueness of the school. Developing this profile will reinforce the school's culture and provide a means of passing it on to the new organizational members.

Chapter 7

Seeing the Novice as an Adult Learner

Becoming a teacher is a journey that begins during preservice education and spans the years of a teaching career. Traditionally, preservice education, beginning teacher induction, and professional staff development were viewed as distinct entities. Recently, there is a growing realization that teacher education does not end with the degree and that the novice teacher has many continuing educational needs. The teacher induction process is viewed not only as an important bridge between preservice and inservice education but also as the beginning of career-long professional development (Fessler & Christensen, 1992).

Throughout the span of a teaching career, development varies widely. At different points in their careers, teachers demonstrate varying degrees of knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Burden, 1982). As teachers gain experience, they develop professional confidence as well as a willingness to try new ideas and become involved in additional professional responsibilities. They try new approaches in discipline, curriculum, planning, and teaching methods. Because the development occurs in a predictable pattern, support systems can be adjusted according to changing needs.

This chapter examines the developmental characteristics and needs of the beginning teacher within the context of career development. Support systems within the school setting are also discussed.

Adult Learning

Adults learn in ways that are different from children. The art and science of helping adults learn is called *andragogy.* Studies of adult learning reveal that its motivation is primarily intrinsic. Adults are motivated to learn what interests them and what they need to know. They usually choose learning opportunities when they perceive a deficit in their performance or an inadequacy in coping with their immediate problems. Adults prefer learning that is self-directed and performance based (Knowles, 1980).

The needs of adult learners have implications for individuals who are preparing teacher induction programs. Novice teachers are filled with ideas and energy, anxious to assume responsibility for their own class, to try their own ideas, and develop a personal style of teaching. They want immediate and concrete solutions to the problems that they are having today. The most useful induction programs provide ideas and information that can be applied to real classroom situations. One solution is providing a learning environment in which teachers individualize their induction by selecting authentic learning activities based on their field experiences (Knowles, 1980; McKee, 1991). The instructor in this model serves as a facilitator who provides resources and facilitates strategies to acquire desired information (Knowles, cited in Hughes, 1994). Teachers learn by reflecting on their experiences and are encouraged to try new ideas (Gordon, 1990).

Stages of Development

The premise of adult development theory is that adults continue to change in predictable ways throughout their lives according to their age, environmental demands, and individual characteristics. Cognitive, social, and language development continue to develop throughout life. Just as children progress through common stages, so do adults. The stages are sequential, although individuals vary in the amount of time they take before moving to the next stage (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 1995). For example, two teachers the same age, with the same amount of experience, may be operating at different developmental levels and require different learning experiences.

The three areas of adult development that are important to individuals planning induction programs are (a) ego development, (b) cognitive development, and (c) conceptual development. Two areas of professional development relevant to beginning teachers are (a) level of concern and (b) level of commitment. Knowledge of these areas assists in understanding beginning teachers and providing individualized assistance (Gordon, 1990).

Ego Development

At the lower stages of ego development, individuals depend on others to solve their problems. In the middle stages of ego development, individuals conform to behavior considered socially acceptable. When adults reach the higher stages, they become individualistic and autonomous. Glickman et al. (1995) call these stages fearful, conforming, and autonomous. All three stages have implications for individuals who work with beginning teachers. A fearful beginning teacher needs a trusting relationship with a nurturing support person. A novice who exhibits conforming behavior will benefit by working with a support person who encourages self-reliance and collaboration in problem solving. A teacher who behaves autonomously thrives in an atmosphere in which growth and experimentation are encouraged.

The self-esteem of adult learners is enhanced in work settings in which the following elements are present:

- Mutual respect between novice and instructor
- Collaboration among peers
- Mutual trust within the staff
- Supportiveness of peers and administrator
- Openness and authenticity of expression
- Pleasurable learning experiences
- A comfortable and accepting atmosphere

Teacher learners will be more productive if they actively engage in mutual planning of the learning experience. Mutual planning includes diagnosing learning needs, determining learning objectives, designing learning plans, and evaluating progress. The principal's role is to monitor the process and offer assistance to the novices as they carry out their plans (Wise & Holland, cited in Hughes, 1994).

Cognitive Development

The literature on adult learning tells us that young people are better than their elders at tasks that require quick insight, short-term memorization, and complex interactions. As people age they perform better on tasks calling for judgment, knowledge, and experience. An implication that can be drawn from the literature is that beginning teachers can benefit from the accumulated knowledge and insights of their more experienced colleagues (Glickman et al., 1995).

Individuals also differ in terms of levels of conceptual development. Individuals vary between low, moderate, and high levels of conceptual development. Teachers with low levels of conceptual development are concrete thinkers. They tend to view things as black or white, right or wrong. They have difficulty defining a problem and often they repeatedly respond to a situation in the same way, even when the outcome does not solve the problem. Teachers operating at this level need to be shown how to solve the problem. Teachers who have moderate conceptual ability can define a problem and generate a limited number of solutions. However, they need assistance in formulating a comprehensive plan or solution. Teachers with a high level of conceptual development are independent, autonomous thinkers who are flexible in their thinking and able to integrate information. These teachers enjoy making their own decisions and accept responsibility for their own choices. They thrive in situations where the role of the support person is facilitative rather than directive (Glickman et al., 1995; Gordon, 1990).

Level of Concern

The literature suggests that beginning teacher concerns may be categorized into three phases or stages:

- A focus on self or self-adequacy
- Teaching task concerns
- Concern for the impact on students (Burden, 1982; Fuller & Brown, cited in Heck & Williams, 1984; Karge, Sandlin, & Young, 1993)

During the self-adequacy stage teachers are concerned about doing a good job when the principal is near, and about being accepted and liked by colleagues and students (Gordon, 1990). They are struggling to learn school procedures, policies, record keeping, and classroom management (Karge et al., 1993).

The concerns at the teaching task stage revolve around issues related to instructional tasks, such as their workload, student load, pressures of teaching, and discipline (Gordon, 1990). Beginning teachers report that their primary concern during the first year is maintaining control of their classroom, teaching the subject, and improving their skills in planning and organizing, grading, and knowing the curriculum and what to teach (Brock, 1988; Burden, 1982). Many first-year teachers express feelings of inadequacy and doubt their ability to be good teachers (Brock, 1988; Burden, 1982). The initial focus of their teaching is the subject rather than the student.

Regardless of the excellence of their preparation program, beginning teachers have limited knowledge of the teaching environment and the activities of teaching. Even though they have been taught a variety of methods in preservice training, most teach in a traditional manner likely adhering to a previously formed image of teachers and teaching. They are reluctant to attempt more innovative teaching methods until they master the more traditional methods. By sacrificing other—possibly better—methods, new teachers add further stress to their situation (Burden, 1982; Fuller & Brown, cited in Heck & Williams, 1984). During this initial teaching period, teacher attitudes tend to become more negative and their behaviors more inflexible (Brock, 1988; Howey & Bents, 1979; Langana, 1970; Zumwalt, 1984). A beginning teacher reported, "I just can't seem to get through to these kids. It seems like they are working hard at being bored. After days like today I wonder, is it worth it? This is getting really frustrating."

Beginning teachers focus on what is essential in getting the job done. When they discover something that works, they tend to stick with that practice for prolonged periods of time in an attempt to survive. The resulting teaching practices merge into a style that beginning teachers adopt without examining their particular merits. Unless beginning teachers are provided assistance during this period, the survival style of teaching that results leads to teacher stagnation instead of development (Howey & Bents, 1979; Langana, 1970; Zumwalt, 1984).

Once assured of survival in the classroom, the teacher's focus turns to the task of teaching and the impact of his or her teaching on the students (Burden, 1982; Fuller & Brown, cited in Heck & Williams, 1984). As teachers begin to understand the complexities of teaching, they are more willing to attempt new strategies to better serve their students' needs (Burden, 1982; Karge et al., 1993). At this stage, the teacher's greatest concern is the impact of teaching on the students. The teacher is interested in the intellectual and emotional well-being of his or her students. Now the teacher is ready to explore issues basic to student learning, such as motivational techniques, individualizing teaching, and diagnosing learning problems (Gordon, 1990). A beginning teacher reported,

> Class discussions were great today. Students started talking about a current social issue that was related to a topic in our textbook. I learned an important lesson. Get away from the textbook once in a while and open discussions to topics that are relevant to their lives.

The last stage is the mature stage, a time when teachers feel as though they have a command of teaching strategies and a good grasp of the curriculum and begin to adopt a more child-centered approach to teaching. Teachers in this stage of development try new techniques to increase their competence, to keep teaching interesting, and for their own personal improvement and challenge. To prevent boredom, some teachers change grade levels or schools or make radical changes in their classrooms (Burden, 1982).

A study by Cheney, Krajewski, and Combs (1992) subdivides first-year stages into microstages. They report that two stages occur during the first year: survival and consolidation. During the survival stage, teachers are concerned with keeping order and filling time, planning and timing lessons, and experimenting. During the consolidation stage, the novices look toward long-range planning and begin to focus on students. Researchers noted that the order of the microstages did not change, but some teachers took longer than others to reach the more advanced phases.

Level of Commitment

The level of commitment teachers exhibit is measured by the amount of time and energy they devote to teaching. Teachers who have little or no commitment do not have an interest in the job and make no effort to improve. Teachers with moderate commitment work on selective aspects of the job. Teachers with high commitment spend much energy and time working for the well-being of their students and the good of their profession (Glickman et al., 1995). The question is not if teachers can be motivated, but how. Matching feedback and rewards to a teacher's motivational orientation is the key.

The research on adult development demonstrates that adults respond to their environment by making adaptations according to their own intelligence and what they see as appropriate in their contextual situations. Individuals vary in their capacity to change or adapt to their environment. Clearly, induction programs for beginning teachers must be individualized according to their needs. Supervision that addresses adult learning provides opportunities for teachers to expand their repertoire of change strategies (Glickman et al., 1995).

Influencing Factors

In addition to a professional role, teachers' daily lives consist of personal and family roles, all of which have a direct effect on their teaching and career development. The interaction of these roles can be critical to the ease with which beginning teachers enter the profession (Glickman et al., 1995). Issues in personal and family life are critical influences for the novice teachers (Fessler & Christensen, 1992).

The most significant internal support system for beginners is their family. The response of family members to the new teacher's anxieties and adjustment issues will positively or negatively influence the stress level of the transition period. Beginning teachers need family members who will patiently listen to them as they talk unceasingly about their daily trials and tribulations. In the absence of family members, novices need close friends and roommates who will provide this support. One novice teacher acknowledged this need when she reported, "I don't know how my roommates put up with me. I talk continuously about my students and what happened in school. None of them are teachers, but they listen. That helps." For teachers who are newly married, the time demands of school-related activities may create additional stress (Fessler & Christensen, 1992). Although many novice teachers do survive marriage and the first year of teaching, Ryan (1979) suggests that beginning the first year of teaching and the first year of marriage simultaneously is not a wise idea.

Establishing adult identities and responsibilities apart from a network of family and friends adds to the difficulties of the adjustment. Optimism and idealism usually provide the energy and enthusiasm to adjust to the changes. If the teacher enters the profession later in life, having friends and family affirm the worthiness of the career choice is important. However, the anxiety and self-doubt of the transitions are eased by the knowledge and security of past successes (Fessler & Christensen, 1992).

Already in a period of high stress, a novice teacher may perceive the slightest change as a crisis. The tendency to overreact is common. Beginners need a stable environment in their personal life so they can concentrate on the changes in their professional world (Fessler & Christiansen, 1992). One young teacher whom we interviewed during her first year was visibly upset because her parents were moving. Although she lived in her own apartment, she was upset about her parents' leaving their long-time family home, and wondered whether or not she would have her own room in the new house. Clearly, her parents' impending move at this tumultuous time in her life threatened her personal stability and provoked an emotional crisis.

Beginning teachers test and question their values as they encounter new situations. They may discover that their values are in contrast to those held within their school environment. One beginning teacher questioned a colleague's attitude toward teaching and students:

> There is a teacher down the hall who seems to hate teaching. I never hear anything positive come out of her mouth. She is mean to the students . . . constantly yells at them. I don't think that the kids in this school need to feel unloved. This is probably the best part of their day and the safest place they have. Why put them down?

Understanding how the teacher's personal values fit within the school environment is essential to socialization into the school. Some teachers respond to new situations better than others. The variation in response time is addressed in cognitive development theory, which explains that the more advanced teachers are in levels of conceptual development, the more adaptable they are to new challenges (Fessler & Christensen, 1992; Glassburg, cited in Howey & Bents, 1979).

Avocational interests, hobbies, and free time are usually a thing of the past for beginning teachers. Most find that they have little time for anything except school. Finding a healthy balance in work and recreational activities is difficult (Fessler & Christiansen, 1992). A third-year teacher reflecting on her first year reported,

> I basically had no life other than teaching. It seemed like I'd wake up, try to get to school one hour early, teach all day, say good-bye to the students, and go right back to work in the classroom. There was hardly ever a night that I'd go to bed after 8:30 p.m. I spent several hours on weekends making bulletin boards, grading papers, and doing lesson plans. I'd think to myself, how in the world do teachers have time for family and friends. It seemed like whenever I had some time, I was too tired.

Workplace Factors

The school as a social organization provides conditions that affect the learning and professional development of its teachers. Teachers' beliefs about the time required to become master teachers and the level of artistry required are imparted by the norms of each school's social organization (Rosenholz, 1989). Novice teachers begin their careers with strong desires to become good teachers and without cynical attitudes or entrenched behaviors to overcome. However, in their desire to fit into a school, they will be influenced by the prevailing norms and attitudes that they encounter (Barth, 1990). Novice teachers who enter schools in which routine process and procedures are viewed as the pinnacle of teaching artistry will probably not develop beyond this point. Those who begin teaching in schools in which teachers view their career development as a sustained process will likely follow that lead (Rosenholz, 1989).

Facilitating new teacher support is one aspect of a broader issue of schoolwide professional development. Providing induction for beginning teachers may require changes in the traditional professional isolation that occurs in many schools (Cole, 1993). Collegiality, the key to breaking down the barriers of isolationism, does not occur by chance. Principals and teachers must value the benefits and deliberately seek actions to promote it. Principals can promote collegiality within their schools by the following practices:

- Stating their expectations for cooperation
- Collaborating with faculty in making school improvements
- Providing rewards, such as recognition, funding, materials, or space to teachers who collaborate
- Supporting teachers when they initiate collegial behaviors (Barth, 1990; Cole, 1993)

Collegial behaviors provide the conditions for continuous professional development. A study by Little (1982) of the workplace conditions in six urban schools revealed that continuous professional development was most thoroughly achieved when the following conditions occurred:

- Teachers engaged in frequent, continuous talk about teaching practice.
- Teachers were frequently observed and provided with useful feedback about their teaching.
- Teachers designed, prepared, and evaluated teaching materials together.
- Teachers taught each other the art of teaching.

The critical elements that distinguished the more successful schools were based on group efforts and sharing in the areas of classroom practices, mutual observation and critique, curriculum planning, and instructional improvement. The more successful schools fostered a norm of collegiality and a school environment conducive to continuous staff development. For novice teachers, who face a common problem of not knowing what to do or to whom to turn, such a supportive environment would provide optimal conditions for personal and professional development (Corcoran, 1981). In a community of learners, students, principal, and all teachers become committed, lifelong learners. Beginning-teacher-induction programs would be a natural part of school practice, rather than an additional responsibility for administrators and teachers (Cole, 1993).

Chapter 8

Helping the New Teacher Develop Classroom Management Strategies

The clearest message we heard from first-year teachers is that they do not have adequate classroom management skills. In surveys completed at the end of the first year of teaching and during seminars held throughout the first year, we consistently heard that discipline is a major concern for the beginning professional.

First-year teachers reported that their university preparation programs gave limited attention to classroom management. Practicum experiences and student teaching were often the only opportunities for giving attention to this dimension of the teaching function. Because of limited exposure to classroom management techniques in the preparation phase, first-year teachers draw on the examples they observed in their field experiences.

One of the often heard comments was, "I had no idea I'd have to deal with this type of issue." Clearly it would be depressing and dysfunctional to discourage individuals from entering the teaching profession by foreshadowing an entire encyclopedia of the disciplinary transgressions that might transpire in a teaching career. However, there appears to be an incredible chasm between the first-year teacher's expectations for student behavior and the realities of the students' behavior.

Because of the limited attention given to discipline in the preparation program, the task of preparing first-year teachers devolves to the principal. In most cases, principals expect teachers to be capable of managing classroom discipline. This perception is more ideal than real. Principals need to embrace their role in assisting first-year teachers to create classroom environments that do not contribute to classroom disruptions.

The Principal's Role

"The principal's role is to assist all teachers, but especially beginning teachers, in developing classroom management strategies that provide an orderly learning environment" (Meyers & Pawlas, 1989, p. 11). Principals and teachers must remember that

> 80% of all children will behave well and will respond with improved behavior to *either* good or bad methods of discipline and 5% of all students chronically misbehave and generally respond very poorly to most known conventional forms of discipline. About 15% of the student population fence-sits. These students need a clear set of expectations and consequences. If they are not given enough structure, they can disrupt learning for all the other students. (Meyers & Pawlas, 1989, p. 38)

Administrators should serve two primary functions in supporting teachers and students. First, they should be available to deal with seriously disruptive behaviors that interfere with the teaching-learning process. Violence toward others or toward property, as well as verbal attacks are examples. Second, when a teacher refers a student to the office for "minor" infractions, that teacher is feeling extremely frustrated and angry with the student:

> From her perspective, the choice is between sending the child to the office or opening up the window and pushing him out. You must recognize this level of frustration and support that teacher by not sending the student back to class until a time when the teacher and student may be able to work out their differences or agree to a truce. (Mendler, 1992, p. 64)

A major administrative role is to be visible and present throughout the school. When teachers do more of the disciplining, this can free up the administrators to be present in so-called high discipline activity places. Assistant principals can move beyond the assembly line discipline mentality. Administrators also need a range of choices to move beyond the "warning-detention-suspension" triangle (Mendler, 1992, p. 65)

The Teacher's Role

A principal can help develop the teacher's professional response to discipline issues. For instance, it is important to have a clear understanding of discipline.

The following are four commonly held views of discipline:

1. The degree of order maintained in the classroom. This is discipline we have.
2. The means employed to establish, maintain, or restore order in the classroom. This is discipline we use.
3. The specific means we use to punish offenders. In this sense, discipline is the punishment we inflict.
4. The means we use to develop self-discipline or self-control. This is the discipline we live. (Meyers & Pawlas, 1989, p. 1)

Teachers need to be able to recognize the dimensions of schools with good discipline.

The Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Discipline (Meyers & Pawlas, 1982) identified eight factors associated with schools with good discipline:

1. The way people in a school work together to solve problems
2. The way authority and status are allocated and symbolized in the school
3. The degree to which students feel they belong in the school and feel that it serves them
4. The way rules are developed, communicated, and enforced
5. The ways of dealing with personal problems of students and staff
6. The way in which the physical facilities and the organizational structure of the school reinforce educational goals
7. The relationship between the school, the community, and the homes it serves
8. The quality of the curriculum and instructional practices

Teachers who seek specialized training or programs concerning behavior management might consider these three sources, identified by Meyers and Pawlas (1989).

> A popular program that has received national attention is Assertive Discipline, developed by Lee Canter. It is based on the premise that no student has the right to disrupt learning. It calls for clearly stated rules and consequences that are enforced consistently. Students are disciplined in graduated steps depending on the severity of the infraction, with the final consequence being removal of the student from the classroom or the school. The program is flexible, allowing a school staff to devise consequences they feel are appropriate for the culture of a particular school. . . . Another essential element of the Assertive Discipline program is its requirement of parental contact. (pp. 6-7)

Another program is the behavior management system developed by Madeline Hunter and associates. This system uses a behavior substitution and reinforcement approach. Identified misbehaviors are replaced with acceptable behaviors using a schedule of reinforcements provided by the teacher, principal, or other staff member.

William Glasser (1969), author of *Schools Without Failure,* offers a ten-step process for working with students who misbehave. This process calls for students to evaluate their own misbehavior and to resolve it. It requires that the teacher or principal take time to help students talk through the situation, how they reacted to it, and how they will act the next time the same circumstances occur.

Principals should emphasize the following with first-year teachers: When teachers plan their lessons carefully, involve students actively in learning, and use effective classroom management techniques, the incidence of discipline problems diminishes. A quality learning environment keeps discipline problems from developing.

Each teacher should apply rules consistently and fairly. Effective teachers explain and model what they want children to do.

Rules should be restricted to five simple questions:

1. Are you respecting others' rights to learn?
2. Are you respecting others' rights not to be hurt physically or by put-downs?
3. Are you respecting others' rights to their personal property?
4. Are you helping others?
5. Are you making others feel good by giving compliments or by inviting them to join you in some activity?

Some teachers write out the rules and the consequences for breaking them and post them in the classroom.

The discipline climate of the school emanates from individual classrooms (Meyers & Pawlas, 1989, pp. 10-11). Effective classroom managers handle most behavior problems themselves. Effective classroom managers use praise judiciously.

Teachers must be reminded that all children need the following:

- To feel and believe that they are capable and successful
- To know they are cared about by others
- To realize that they are able to influence people and events
- To practice helping others through their own generosity
- To experience fun and stimulation (Meyers & Pawlas, 1989, p. 4)

Children who are discipline problems often have a history of failure. It is not surprising that most children choose to be bad over being stupid if they view these as their only viable options. Hope in a school setting is best accomplished through helping students confront real problems and find new cognitive, social, or emotional ways to solve their problems (Meyers & Pawlas, 1989, pp. 6-7).

For many children who range from mediocre to poor in their school performance, it takes a lot of courage for them to keep trying. Giving up or becoming disruptive are sensible alternatives (to them) when they are put into situations in which mediocrity is the best possible outcome (Meyers & Pawlas, 1989, pp. 6-7).

The most effective way to help children learn that they can control their destiny in school is to provide opportunities for them to be decision makers. Students can become key decision makers by developing classroom rules and consequences. In such circumstances, peers are much more likely to provide reminders when fellow students break rules than they are in conventional classrooms where teachers have to enforce all of the consequences because the system is "owned" only by the teacher (Meyers & Pawlas, 1989, p. 14).

Teachers who vary their style of presentation and who are sensitive to the different learning and intellectual styles of their students tend to have more motivated classes and fewer discipline problems (Meyers & Pawlas, 1989, p. 19).

Summary

Principals should determine the first-year teacher's training and experience in classroom management before the school year begins. This is one area where planning and prevention can have dramatic results. Principals need to instruct the first-year teacher in the fundamental principles of good classroom management. They must also define their expectations for the handling of discipline.

Chapter 9

Building a Teacher-Mentor Support Team

A mentor program can make the difference between a beginning teacher who leaves the profession after one year and a beginning teacher whose first year is the first stage of a satisfying career. A mentoring program may also be the difference between a year of frustration and a year of learning for the beginning teacher's students. A mentorship program benefits all who participate—the school, the new teacher, the mentor, and, most importantly, the students.

An elementary teacher writes, "It's essential to have a mentor, especially a person who is in the same grade level and nearby. I ask my mentor questions that I wouldn't want to bother the principal with . . . everyday kinds of things. We chat a lot."

The Need for Mentorship Programs

About 30% of beginning teachers leave the profession during their first two years. Another 10% to 20% leave during the next five years (Schlecty & Vance, 1983). Approximately 50% of all beginning teachers leave the profession within seven years. Studies indicate that those who leave are among the most academically talented teachers (Schlecty & Vance, 1981).

Recent years have yielded a number of national and state reports expressing dissatisfaction with the quality of public education. Clearly, concerns regarding the quality of our nation's teachers coupled with projections of future teacher shortages and the high attrition rate of beginning teachers are major concerns. In response, school districts are developing teacher induction programs in an effort to support successful first-year teaching experiences and retain competent teachers. Mentorship is a major component of many of these programs. The main goal of a mentoring program is to increase the likelihood of success for first-year teachers. If mentorship is successful, students will benefit and the beginning teacher will be encouraged to remain in the profession (Walker, 1992).

Where Did the Idea of Mentors Originate?

The word *mentor* originated in Greek mythology and has survived for more than 3,500 years. Those who have read Homer's epic poem *The Odyssey* will recall that when Odysseus prepared to leave his family and fight in the Trojan War, he was warned that he could not return for more than twenty years. Concern for his son, Telemachus, prompted him to ask his friend, named Mentor, to guide his son on his journey to maturity. Mentor watched over and nurtured Telemachus as a trusted friend and counselor, thus providing a model for the process that today we call mentoring.

The word *mentor* in current usage refers to an individual of maturity and experience who provides guidance and assistance to a novice. Informal mentorship exists whenever one person assists or explains something to another. Formal mentorship is an organized and systematic process of an experienced person assisting a protégé (Heller & Sindelar, 1991). In the education profession, a mentor is an individual with experience and expertise who has assumed primary responsibility for providing support and guidance for a beginning teacher. Novices are encouraged to achieve their goals through interaction within a positive, collegial, but never dependent, relationship.

How Do We Know That Mentoring Works?

Research documents the fact that beginning teachers do profit from assistance and that mentors are an important factor in that assistance (Brock, 1988; Hale, 1992). A study by Freiberg (1994) reports strongly stated and emotionally charged comments of respondents about their mentor teachers, many remarking that they would have quit or lost their sanity without their mentors. Teachers in a study by Hale (1992) reported that their relationship with a mentor to some degree increased their teaching ability and satisfaction with their job, improved their personal and professional well-being, and assisted them in understanding the school philosophy and school community. Of the teachers in the study, 100% thought that having a mentor for the first year was very important. Respondents indicated that having a specific person to provide information and support reduced their feelings of isolation and eased their anxiety.

What Are the Benefits of Mentorships?

Aside from the obvious benefits to the beginning teachers, mentors report a personal benefit from the experience. The personal value derived from teaching someone else is a well-recognized fact in educational circles. In the process of preparing to teach another, one reexamines former beliefs, assimilates new ideas, and makes behavior changes. Mentors need to articulate what they believe to be effective teaching and model their beliefs in practice. In doing so, they carefully reexamine their own belief systems and teaching practices. When confronted by an issue for which they do not have answers, mentors seek out new ideas and learn with their protégés (Haipt, 1990; Hale, 1992; Heller & Sindelar, 1991; Shulman & Colbert, 1987).

The entire school benefits from the contagious esprit de corps that develops from a mentorship program. Teacher isolation is broken as mentors network to share insights about their work (Heller & Sindelar, 1991). As teachers begin to share ideas, networking becomes central to continuous professional development (Lowney, 1986).

Although the intrinsic satisfactions of mentorship are important, mentor teachers should also be compensated for their increased responsibilities with some tangible benefits. Compensation for their workload might include additional salary, release time from teaching, university tuition waivers, and travel funding for educational conferences (O'Dell, 1989).

Beginning a Teacher-Mentor Program

Although mentorship programs have proliferated in recent years, considerable variation exists regarding the components of the programs. Variables include the qualifications of mentors, incentives, selection, training, the process of assigning mentors, the delineation of roles and responsibilities, and the definition of expected outcomes (Freiberg, 1994). The constant distinguishing feature reported in mentorship programs is the systematic and ongoing relationship that is established between mentor and protégé. Schools that are most successful with mentorship programs are those with a climate conducive to faculty sharing and learning and a faculty interested in professional growth (Heller & Sindelar, 1991).

The first step in beginning a teacher-mentor program is performing a needs assessment to establish a rationale for the program (Heller & Sindelar, 1991). Programs need to be tailored to specific school settings. Once a decision is made to create a program, goals should be developed to tailor the program to the specific school setting. These goals will provide the framework on which to build the program (O'Dell, 1989). Goals commonly used in mentorship programs include the following:

- Improving the teaching performance of beginning teachers
- Retaining promising beginning teachers
- Promoting the personal and professional well-being of beginning teachers
- Transmitting the culture of the school and teaching profession

- Satisfying mandated requirements of the state or school district as necessary (Huling-Austin, 1989)

The next steps include (a) defining the needs of the teachers, (b) establishing criteria for the selection of mentors, (c) defining mentors' roles, and (d) determining the length of mentors' service or commitment. The school administrator, faculty, and new teachers should have input into all aspects of the program design (Heller & Sindelar, 1991).

The Needs of New Teachers

The literature on entry-level teachers reports little deviation in the areas in which beginning teachers need assistance. Variance is noted only in the rank order assigned to the areas of need. A survey of beginning teachers and principals that we conducted showed consistencies with the literature in identifying the following areas of needed assistance:

- Discipline and classroom management
- Emotional support
- Responding to varying levels of student abilities
- Planning, organization, and time management
- Communicating with students, parents, faculty, and administrators
- Assessing students' work
- Understanding the procedures and policies of the school
- Adjusting to the teaching profession
- Obtaining resources
- Using effective teaching strategies (Brock, 1988; Brock & Grady, 1996b; Gordon, 1990; Ryan, 1986; Shulman & Colbert, 1987)

In addition, teachers in nonpublic schools report that they need assistance in areas specific to religion, such as (a) preparing student liturgies, (b) teaching religion, (c) integrating faith values into the curriculum, (d) modeling religious values, and (e) preparing students for sacraments (Brock, 1988).

Assistance needs are often overlapping. A problem in one area may create problems in other areas. For instance, poor classroom discipline may be the result of lack of preparation, ineffective teaching strategies, poor organization, or lack of content knowledge. The underlying possibilities suggest that assistance programs address each of the possible needs so that critical areas are addressed for each teacher (Gordon, 1990).

Some of the assistance needs of first-year teachers are created by inappropriate teaching assignments or environmental problems. Freiberg (1994) reported critical needs resulting from teachers being assigned to teach in content areas and grade levels for which they had not been prepared. Other teachers who find themselves in classrooms with inadequate equipment and scant resources need help in obtaining materials for their students. These problems can be eliminated by placing a beginning teacher in teaching assignments for which they have been prepared and providing adequate resources. However, even beginners who have adequate resources and materials available may need assistance in selecting materials that suit students' instructional needs. Others may need assistance in effectively using resources and materials in their teaching, which relates to their use of effective teaching strategies (Gordon, 1990).

The assistance needs presented here are those common to many beginning teachers. However, the needs of individual schools and the beginning teachers themselves should be considered before designing a mentorship program. Some problems are unique to individual teachers, and some beginning teacher problems are specific to the school setting (Gordon, 1990). Those planning an induction program should consider the needs commonly expressed in the literature, the unique setting of the school, and the needs of the beginning teachers. A critical source of data often overlooked when planning a mentorship program is the beginning teachers themselves (McKee, 1991). Before school begins and again at a point midway through the year, beginning teachers should be asked to identify problem areas and assistance needs. Throughout their developmental stages teachers should be asked to share their needs and contribute ideas (Gordon, 1990; McKee, 1991; Shulman & Colbert, 1987).

The Framework of a Mentor Program

Most teacher assistance programs involve the coordinated efforts of several people. In most cases, a director is responsible for overall implementation of the program. Sometimes support teams are formed, composed of a district administrator, university faculty, and veteran teacher or mentor. The school principal is responsible for evaluation of the program. The veteran teacher who provides the mentoring is the key to the program. Some mentor teachers maintain full teaching loads, whereas others have a reduced load. In other programs, mentors provide full-time assistance to several beginning teachers (O'Dell, 1989). Whatever the structure of the program, providing time for mentors and beginning teachers to spend together is essential.

What Are the Requirements for a Mentor?

Requirements for mentors generally include having the experience and certification appropriate to the beginning teacher's assignment, and possession of prerequisite knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values necessary for becoming an effective mentor (Gordon, 1990; Haipt, 1990). Prerequisite areas are further defined as follows.

Mentors should have an understanding of learning theories, child growth and development, principles of learning, and student evaluation. They also need a thorough knowledge of the school's community and students, including any needs unique to the students within the school (Gordon, 1990).

Mentors should be thoroughly familiar with the school's policies, procedures, routines, curriculum, courses of study, and competencies (Gordon, 1990). Credible mentors have expertise in the subject area or grade level of the protégé and have familiarity with available instructional resources (Gordon, 1990; Heller & Sindelar, 1991; Shulman & Colbert, 1987).

Mentors should be excellent teachers, judged by their supervisors as able to plan and implement organized and academically stimulating lessons. The climate in their classrooms should cultivate respect and nourish learning (Heller & Sindelar, 1991; Lowney, 1986; O'Dell, 1989).

Mentors must be able to interact and work well with others (Gordon, 1990; Haipt, 1990; O'Dell, 1989). The communication skills of listening and expressing are essential (Gordon, 1990; Lowney, 1986).

Mentors also need ability to define a problem, generate alternative solutions, and select, implement, and evaluate a course of action. Leadership skills and ability to adapt to different individuals and situations is important (Gordon, 1990).

Mentors need to be able to offer suggestions and possibilities, without encroaching on the fragile and vulnerable autonomy of the beginning teacher. This is not an easy task for a confident, competent, veteran teacher who may be more inclined to tell the novice what needs to be done or how to best solve the problem (Feiman-Nemser & Parker, 1992; O'Dell, 1986).

Mentors should be well respected by peers (Heller & Sindelar, 1991), and have a dedication to the teaching profession, a concern for beginning teachers, and a willingness to spend time and energy working with beginners (Gordon, 1990; Haipt, 1990; Lowney, 1986).

Factors to consider when assigning mentors and protégés, include the following: (a) grade level and content areas, (b) a match between mentor and protégé in teaching style and ideology, (c) proximity of classrooms, and (d) compatibility of schedules (Haipt, 1990; O'Dell, 1989).

Matching Mentors With Entry-Year Teachers

Quickly establishing a trusting relationship is an essential component of effective mentorship assistance. The rapport between mentor and protégé is critical (Haipt, 1990). If the mentorship is to be effective, a trusting relationship must be established (Haipt, 1990; Shulman & Colbert, 1987). A match between mentor and entry-year teacher personalities is important. Mutual interests, teaching philosophies and expressed desires to be matched should be considered. Mentors and beginners should have opportunities for informal interaction before assignments are made. Matching preferences of mentors and beginners should be considered. Other variables that merit consideration are sex, age, and teaching assignment. Generally the most effective matches are made between mentors and beginners who are of the same sex, teach the same grade or subject matter, and have an age difference of eight to fifteen years (Gordon, 1990).

The Process of Mentoring

The guidance that mentors provide can take a wide variety of forms, including the following:

- Telling beginners about the procedural demands of the school
- Providing opportunities for the novice to observe other teachers' teaching and classroom management strategies
- Problem solving with the novice to resolve curriculum, planning, time management, and discipline problems
- Sharing their knowledge of teaching methods and use of materials
- Engaging teachers in reflection about their own practice to provide them with a sense of self-sufficiency (Shulman & Colbert, 1987)

Additional responsibilities may include conducting orientations, planning and conducting staff development workshops, and writing newsletters for beginning teachers (O'Dell, 1989; Shulman & Colbert, 1987).

Freiberg (1994) reported that mentors described themselves in five roles: counselor, resource person, helper, mediator, and model, with counselor the role that they mentioned most often. A beginner teacher echoed the need for emotional support when she wrote, "I really felt like I had an advocate in the building—someone I could look to for help." Good mentors are good listeners, plan observations collaboratively with protégés, provide concrete feedback, engage in problem solving with protégés, know where to obtain resources, and demonstrate quality teaching and professionalism (Freiberg, 1994; Shulman & Colbert, 1987). Successful mentors meet regularly with beginning teachers and provide emotional as well as professional support (Freiberg, 1994). They create an atmosphere of mutual respect and trust and ensure that conversations are confidential (Shulman & Colbert, 1987). Throughout the process of mentoring, successful mentors are conscious of their responsibility to the students and the quality of education in their schools (Freiberg, 1994).

Although the specifics of mentorships and program development differ, the purpose is the same: to provide the new teacher with a support person, one who is not part of the administration and who has the time and expertise to be of assistance (Ryan, 1986).

A high school teacher shared his thoughts on the value of having a mentor:

> I like to visit my mentor's classes. It's interesting to see how he handles himself and how the students respond to him. Our classes seem to have more in common than I thought. It was nice to see some of my struggles handled by a veteran teacher.

How Should Mentors Be Oriented?

Mentors need to have preservice orientations during which they are told about the needs of beginning teachers, what is expected of them, and what resources and assistance are available to them. The orientation should include a handbook for mentors that contains an explanation of the school or district's mentorship program, broad goals of the program, and the evaluation systems that will be used for mentors and their protégés. If the program includes seminars for mentors, meetings of support groups, and training sessions, mentors should be provided with an explanation of each and a calendar of events (Gordon, 1990; Heller & Sindelar, 1991).

Training of Mentors

Although principals believe in the importance of having a mentorship program, few schools provide established programs for mentor training (Brock & Grady, 1996b). Appropriate training in the role of a mentor is as important as careful selection of the mentor (O'Dell, 1989). Mentors are not successful by virtue of their appointment. Successful mentors are developed over time through good training, opportunities to share experiences with others, and feedback from supervisors and protégés (Lowney, 1986).

Training for mentors should reflect the performance goals of the schools' mentorship program. Session content should focus on the knowledge and skills perceived as important for mentors (Feiman-

Nemser & Parker, 1992). The areas of mentor training become the basis of evaluation of the mentors' performance.

Gordon (1990) suggests anticipating the needs of the beginning mentors by developing a two-phase training program. In phase one, mentors learn the basic knowledge and skills they will need to draw on during the first-year teacher orientation and the first few weeks of the year. In phase two, the training can focus on knowledge and skills that mentors will need throughout the first year and beyond. Equally important is providing mentors an opportunity to learn by sharing their experiences with other mentors. Regular occasions for veteran and new mentors to discuss problems and share ideas provide opportunities for ongoing reflection and enrichment (Feiman-Nemser & Parker, 1992).

Diagnosing Problems

The mentorship approach is unique in that it makes possible the delivery of continuing professional development that is individualized according to each teacher's needs. Once the mentor and beginning teacher have a level of trust and comfort, the mentor can begin to identify areas in which the beginning teacher needs assistance. Usually the beginning teacher's questions reveal areas of concern. If they are reluctant to discuss problems or unable to identify the difficulty, questioning strategies may help to reveal the problem (O'Dell, 1989). Other possibilities for determining areas for support include assessment techniques, classroom observation, diagnostic strategies, and conferencing skills. Mentors who have mastered a variety of techniques for data collection and interpretation, diagnostic strategies, and conferencing skills will be adaptable to the vast array of differences that beginning teachers present (Gordon, 1990).

A formal needs assessment can be accomplished through an interview or written survey. Although general results may assist in planning for group meetings and areas of common concern, individual results should provide the basis of assistance for individuals (Gordon, 1990). A needs assessment that includes the following fixed-response items may assist novices in defining their problems:

- Information about the school or district
- Locating and collecting resources
- Teaching strategies
- Emotional support
- Advice on student management
- Scheduling and planning
- Working and conferencing with parents
- Help with classroom organization (O'Dell, 1989)

Including an open-ended question, such as "I am having difficulty with . . . ," "I would like assistance with . . . ," or "I would have difficulty with . . . ," provides the beginning teacher with an opportunity to express a concern or need not included on the list. The needs and problems of beginning teachers change throughout the year. A needs assessment in the Fall and another at midterm would be responsive to changing concerns (Gordon, 1990).

Another method of assessing problems is through classroom observations or coaching. Observations should occur regularly, say, every two or three weeks. Mentors should be trained in classroom observation techniques. These include preconferencing; identifying the focus of the lesson; learning observation methods, such as scripting, videotaping, or anecdotal recording; analyzing data; and postconferencing techniques (Gordon, 1990).

Conferencing With Beginners

As important as diagnosing a problem is the ability to solve the problem by conferencing with a protégé. Mentors must be able to listen with three ears: to what a person says, to what a person does not say, and to what a person wants to say but does not know how to say (Walker, 1992). Reflective listening skills are essential.

The key to providing continuous learning is educating beginning teachers to reflect about their own practice. Engaging teachers in reflection and analysis about their teaching enables them to gain self-sufficiency and self-confidence (Shulman & Colbert, 1987).

Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (1994) propose three distinct conferencing techniques that enable mentors to work with beginning teachers of varying levels of motivation and skills. Each of the three conferencing styles—nondirect, collaborative, and directive—employs a distinct set of interpersonal behaviors.

Nondirect conferencing is used with a beginning teacher who is highly motivated and has the ability to solve problems. A mentor using nondirect conferencing acts as a facilitator who guides his or her protégé in the discovery of solutions to his or her problems.

The collaborative approach involves mutual decision making by the mentor and mentee. This approach is used when beginning teachers are motivated and have some ideas for solving problems but need ideas and advice from their mentor. Mentors and protégés define the problem together and engage in mutual problem analysis and brainstorming to derive a list of possible solutions. They agree on a chosen solution and strategies for accomplishing the plan.

The directive approach is used when the beginning teacher does not have the skills to formulate appropriate solutions to a problem. The mentor presents the problem to the protégé and directs the teacher to engage in an action plan to solve the problem. Each of these conferencing approaches requires the use of a prescribed set of interpersonal skills that should be part of a mentor's training.

The Role of Other Faculty

Mentors should not be the only teachers who contribute to the success of beginning teachers. Veteran teachers play an important role in welcoming the beginning teachers and making them feel a part of the faculty. The cooperative efforts of veterans and mentors are integral to a successful induction program. Invitations to lunch and other casual events provide opportunities for beginners to ask questions. Veterans need to offer support, encouragement, tips, and hints based on their years of teaching experience. The sense of belonging and dialogue that is generated in social exchanges dispels the sense of isolation so keenly felt by beginning teachers. Mentors can also arrange more formal contacts between beginners and their veteran counterparts. Beginners benefit from observing teachers who possess skills in areas in which they need assistance (Gordon, 1990).

Administrative Support

A supportive administration is essential to a successful teacher-mentor program. All levels of the administrative team, such as school board, superintendent, central office staff, and principals, need to be involved and supportive. Although it is not possible for school boards and superintendents to be involved in day-to-day operations, they need to allocate adequate resources and publicly promote the importance of the mentorship program (Heller & Sindelar, 1991).

Principals are obviously key figures in the planning and implementation of mentorship programs. Their support is essential to the success of the mentors and the induction programs in general. Principals should participate in every aspect of designing the mentorship and induction programs. If the particular program includes a committee that oversees it, the principal should have input into the composition and selection of the members and into defining its role. Principals should have a voice in the selection of mentor teachers, their training, the selection and pairing of beginners with mentors, day-to-day operations of the program, and the final evaluation of the mentorship program (Freiberg, 1994; Gordon, 1990; Heller & Sindelar, 1991).

Principals need to schedule time for mentors and protégés to conference and observe each other's classes (Feiman-Nemser & Parker, 1992; Heller & Sindelar, 1991). The issues of proximity and time are central to establishing a close working relationship between mentor and protégé. Principals can facilitate this relationship by arranging for mentor and protégé to have rooms in close proximity or to share the same lunch and planning periods. Obviously, designing a schedule with release time for mentors and beginning teachers to work together is the ideal solution.

Close monitoring and soliciting periodic feedback throughout the year provide the principal with information about any adjustments that need to be made. A visible and attentive principal can reinforce successful behaviors and correct small problems before they become destructive to the program (Heller & Sindelar, 1991).

The establishment of a mentor program introduces new relationships between mentors, the principal, and beginning teachers. Clearly defined guidelines should outline the responsibilities of each as well as the nature of communication between them. A beginning teacher wrote about her concerns:

> I liked and trusted my mentor until today when she reported to me that the principal had told her that she should help me organize my opening exercises. The principal often stops in my room and has never mentioned any problem to me. I don't know if he is really upset about my teaching and is using my mentor as his messenger, or if my mentor is concerned about my teaching and is discussing it with the principal. Anyway, I'm not sure that I can trust either of them at this point.

Principals, mentors, and teachers need to understand how much information about the progress and problems of the beginning teacher will be shared with principals. Parameters need to be established regarding the confidential nature of the mentor-protégé relationship and the principal's responsibilities regarding the needs of the beginning teacher, the overall well-being of students, and the good order of the school (Freiberg, 1994; Gordon, 1990; Shulman & Colbert, 1987). Mentors and beginning teachers need to be assured that their communications will be confidential.

A clear distinction needs to be made between those responsible for mentoring and those responsible for assessment. Mentors should be responsible only for mentoring. Evaluations should be left to school administrators (Heller & Sindelar, 1991; Vonk, 1993).

University Consultants

University faculty are often called on to be consultants during the planning, implementation, and evaluation phases of mentorship and induction programs. This interaction is beneficial to both the school systems and the universities. The schools benefit from the broad research perspective of the professors. The interaction of professors with the schools keeps professors current with school practice and provides an opportunity to observe the needs of beginning teachers in relationship to their preservice preparation (Gordon, 1990).

Program Evaluation

The mentorship program should be closely monitored throughout the year. The initial mentor training session should be evaluated, with information used to improve the next year's session. Mentors should formally evaluate the program twice a year, providing feedback about the goals of the program, matching of participants, role expectations, time management, resources available, and administrative support. At the end of the year, both mentors and protégés should evaluate the program. Protégés should be asked to assess the value of assistance in adjusting to the school and improving their teaching. Although most mentorship programs are not particularly costly, the school should evaluate the overall program in terms of costs and immediate benefits (Heller & Sindelar, 1991).

Chapter 10

Ideas for Measuring Success

One area that is often overlooked in induction programs is the evaluation component. Evaluation must be an integral part of any induction program. For evaluations to be successful, all constituencies must participate meaningfully.

Needs Assessment

At the beginning of the school year, first-year teachers should be provided with an opportunity to identify their induction needs. The process for collecting data can be through a survey or through interviews with beginning teachers. Mentors should also be queried regarding the needs they perceive for the induction program.

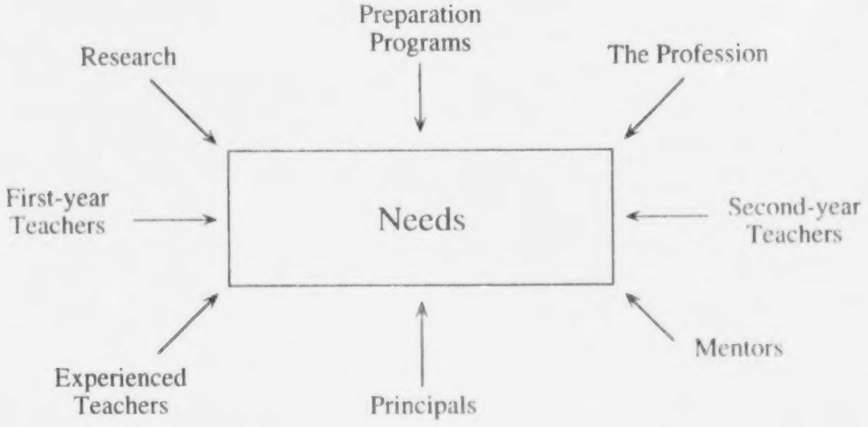

Figure 10.1. Needs Assessment

Individuals who are entering their second year of teaching should also be assessed on their perceptions of their first-year experiences. Only by gathering data from multiple sources can the induction program benefit from the collective experiences of those who have knowledge of and experience with the first year of teaching. Information must be drawn from a variety of sources, including baseline information, interviews, observations, and a review of research and literature. Figure 10.1 is an illustration of sources of information for the needs assessment.

Goals

The needs assessment provides the data for establishing goals for the induction program. Each school should develop goals that meet the specific needs of first-year teachers.

On the basis of the specific goals identified, plans for the induction program should be made. A schedule should be developed that includes specific activities and the person(s) responsible for the activities. Each activity should be followed by an evaluation component. These could be post-activity surveys or interviews with the first-year teachers as well as interviews with mentors or other individuals involved in the activities. The results of this information

Table 10.1 Planned activities

- Mentor selection
- Mentor assignment
- Orientation sessions
- Meetings with mentors
- Meetings with principal
- Observations of teaching
- Formal and informal meetings with teachers
- Interviews with first-year teachers
- Seminars
- Seminar evaluation
- Year-end evaluation

gathering should be used in guiding subsequent activities and in future planning efforts Table 10.1 is a list of planned activities that could occur during an induction program.

Because the needs of first-year teachers are not static, the evaluation plan must be dynamic. In this way the evaluative data that are generated can be used to modify and adapt to changing or emerging needs perceived by the first-year teachers, mentors, return teachers, and administrators. Table 10.2 is a source list of evaluation data.

Year-End Evaluation

A summative evaluation should occur at the end of the year. This evaluation should be based on data gathered from multiple sources and by a variety of means. These data form the basis for planning for subsequent first-year teacher induction needs. Figure 10.2 is a diagram of the evaluation cycle for the induction program.

The evaluation process and the information generated through the process should provide the vitality and dynamics of the induction program. By using a data-driven process and adapting to the needs of participants, first-year teachers can be assured of a first-rate experience.

Table 10.2 Evaluation Data Sources

- Indicators of student learning
- First-year teacher feedback
- Observation data
- Post-activity feedback
- Survey data
- Mentor feedback
- Student feedback
- Parent feedback
- Principal feedback

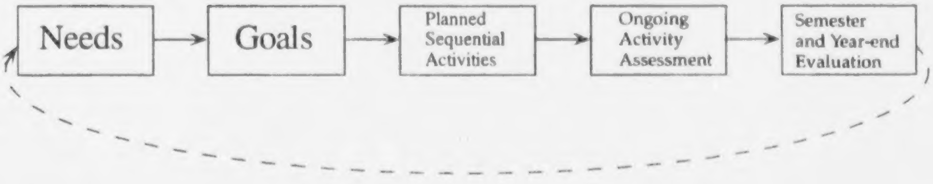
Needs
Goals
Planned Sequential Activities
Ongoing Activity Assessment
Semester and Year-end Evaluation

Figure 10.2. Planning Cycle

References

Barth, R. S. (1990). *Improving schools from within.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brock, B. (1988). *First-year teachers in Catholic schools: A study and analysis of perceptions of undergraduate preparation, entry-level assistance, and problems, and development of a model of assistance.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Nebraska.

Brock, B. (1990). Profile of the beginning teacher. *Momentum, 21*(4), 54-57.

Brock, B. L., & Grady, M. L. (1995). *Principals in transition: Tips for surviving succession.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Brock, B. L., & Grady, M. L. (1996a, August). *First-year teacher induction programs.* Paper presented at a meeting of the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration, Corpus Christi, TX.

Brock, B. L., & Grady, M. L. (1996b). *Public and parochial school principals' perceptions of beginning teachers and the principal's role in the induction process.* Unpublished manuscript.

Burden, P. R. (1982, February). *Developmental supervision: Reducing teacher stress at different career stages.* Paper presented at a meeting of the Association of Teacher Education, Atlanta, GA.

Camp, W. G., & Heath-Camp, B. (1991). *On becoming a teacher: "They just gave me a key and said, 'Good luck.' "* Berkeley, CA: National Center for Research in Vocational Education.

Cheney, C. O., Krajewski, J., & Combs, M. (1992). Understanding the first year teachers: Implications for induction programs. *Teachers Education and Special Education, 15*(1), 8-24.

Chester, M. D. (1992, April). *Alterable factors that mediate the induction-year experience of teachers in urban schools.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Clark, C., Smith, R., Newby, T., & Cook, V. (1985). Perceived origins of teaching behavior. *Journal of Teacher Education, 36*(6), 49-53.

Clark, G. (1986). *Entry-year teachers: A study and analysis of problems and development of a model of assistance.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Nebraska—Lincoln.

Cole, A. L. (1991, April). *Relationships in the workplace: Doing what comes naturally?* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago.

Cole, A. L. (1993, April). *Problems and paradoxes in beginning teachers support: Issues concerning school administrators.* Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, Chicago.

Cooledge, N. (1992, November). Rescuing your rookie teachers. *Principal,* p. 29.

Cooperman, S., & Klagholz, L. (1985). New Jersey's alternative route to certification. *Phi Delta Kappan, 66*(10), 691-695.

Corcoran, E. (1981). Transition shock: The beginning teachers paradox. *Journal of Teacher Education, 32*(3), 19-23.

Cuellar, E. G., & Huling-Austin, L. (Eds.). (1991). *Achieving an ethnically diverse teaching force* (Monograph sponsored by the Department of Education in Washington, DC). Austin: Texas Education Agency.

Day, H. P. (1959). Attitude change of beginning teachers after initial teaching experience. *Journal of Teacher Education, 10*(3), 326-328.

Dilworth, M. E., & Imig, D. G. (1995). Professional teacher development. *ERIC Review, 3*(3), 5-11.

Dinham, S. (1992, July). *Teacher induction: Implications of recent research for educational administrators.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Australian Council for Educational Administration. Darwin, NWT, Australia.

Feiman-Nemser, S., & Parker, M. (1992). *Are mentor teachers teacher educators?* (Special report). Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning.

Fessler, R., & Christensen, J. (Eds.). (1992). *The teacher career cycle: Understanding and guiding the professional development of teachers.* Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Fox, S. M., & Singletary, T. J. (1986). Deductions about supportive induction. *Journal of Teacher Education, 37*(1), 12-15.

Freiberg, M. (1994, October). *The anatomy of a mentoring program for beginning urban teachers.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Mid-Western Educational Research Association, Chicago.

Glasser, W. (1969). *Schools without failure.* New York: Harper & Row.

Glickman, C., Gordon, S., & Ross-Gordon, J. (1994). *Supervision of instruction* (3rd ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Goodlad, J. (1985). Understanding schools is basic to improving them. *National Forum of Educational Administration and Supervision, 2*(1), 1-15.

Gordon, S. P. (1990). *Assisting the entry-year teacher: A leadership resource.* Columbus: Ohio Department of Education.

Gordon, S. (1991). *How to help the beginning teachers succeed.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Haipt, M. (1990). A guide for the voyage. *Momentum, 21*(4), 16-19.

Hale, M. (1992, February). *Perceptions of participants in the orientation buddy program in Area 10* (Research Report No. 91/92-10). Ontario, Canada: Scarborough Board of Education.

Hanson, E. M. (1996). *Educational administration and organizational behavior* (4th edition). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Hart, A., & Bredeson, P. (1996). *The principalship: A theory of professional learning and practice.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Hartzell, G. N. (1990). Induction of experienced teachers into a new school site. *Journal of Staff Development, 11*(4), 28-31.

Hatch, L. (1995). Classroom organization: Cleanliness, not clutter. *New Teacher's Advocate, 3*(1), 4.

Heck, S. C., & Williams, R. (1984). *The complex role of the teacher.* New York: Columbia University, Teachers College.

Heller, M. P., & Sindelar, N. W. (1991). *Developing an effective teacher mentor program.* Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa.

Howey, K. R., & Bents, R. H. (Eds.). (1979). *Toward meeting the needs of the beginning teacher.* Minneapolis, MN: U.S. Department of Health, Education & Welfare.

Hughes, L. W. (Ed.). (1994). *The principal as leader.* New York: Macmillan.

Huling-Austin, L. (1986a). Factors to consider in alternative certification programs: What can be learned from teacher induction research? *Action in Teacher Education, 8*(2), 51-58.

Huling-Austin, L. (1986b). What can and cannot reasonably be expected from teacher induction programs. *Journal of Teacher Education, 37*(1), 2-5.

Huling-Austin, L. (1989). Beginning teacher assistance programs: An overview. In L. Huling-Austin, S. O'Dell, P. Yachter, R. S. Kay, & R. A. Edelfelt (Eds.), *Assisting the beginning teacher.* Reston, VA: Association of Teacher Educators.

Karge, B. D., Sandlin, R. A., & Young, B. L. (1993, April). *Analysis of beginning teacher concern data to restructure preservice teacher education.* Paper presented at a meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Atlanta, GA.

Knauth, S., & Kamin, C. (1994, April). *What happens when it's not training or induction but training and induction.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA.

Knowles, M. S. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy* (2nd ed.). Chicago: Association.

Kurtz, W. H. (1983, January). How the principal can help beginning teachers. *NASSP Bulletin, 67,* 42-45.

Langana, J. F. (1970). *What happens to the attitudes of beginning teachers?* Danville, IL: Interstate Printers & Publishers.

Lee, R. W., Jr. (1994, April). *Perceptions of a beginning teacher: Exploring subjective reality.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA.

Lieberman, A., & Miller, L. (1984). *Teachers, their world and their work.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision, Curriculum, and Development.

Little, J. W. (1982). Norms of collegiality and experimentation: Workplace conditions of school success. *American Educational Research Journal, 19*(3), 325-340.

Lowney, R. G. (1986). *Mentor teachers: The California model.* Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa.

Ludlow, B. L., & Wienke, W. D. (1994, March). *Alternative certification in special education: A qualitative study of two models.* Paper presented at the Annual National Conference of the American Council on Rural Special Education, Austin, TX.

Luehe, B. (1989). *The principal and supervision.* Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa.

Lunde, K. L. (1995). Preparing yourself for the first day of school. *New Teacher's Advocate, 3*(1), 5.

McKee, J. G. (1991, February). *Toward an agenda for induction: Perceptions of beginning teachers and student teachers.* Paper presented at the Eastern Educational Research Association, Boston.

McKibbin, M. D. (1988). Alternative teacher certification programs. *Educational Leadership, 46*(3), 33-35.

Meister, G. R. (1990). *Help for new teachers: Developmental practices that work.* Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools.

Mendler, A. H. (1992). *What do I do when—? How to achieve discipline with dignity in the classroom.* Bloomington, IN: National Educational Service.

Meyers, K., & Pawlas, G. (1982). *Handbook for developing schools with good discipline.* Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa.

Meyers, K., & Pawlas, G. (1989). *The principal and discipline.* Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa.

Montemayor, A. M. (1990-1991). Retaining an ethnically diverse teaching force. *Teacher Education and Practice, 6*(2), 53-59.

O'Dell, S. J. (1986). Induction support of new teachers: A functional approach. *Journal of Teacher Education, 37*(1), 26-29.

O'Dell, S. J. (1989). Developing support programs for beginning teachers. In L. S. Huling-Austin, S. J. O'Dell, P. Yachter, R. S. Kay, & R. A. Edelfelt (Eds.), *Assisting the beginning teacher.* Reston, VA: Association of Teacher Educators.

Ondak, R. (1996, August). *College based induction and mentoring programs and teacher attitude toward teaching.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration, Corpus Christi, TX.

Owens, R. G. (1995). *Organizational behavior in education* (5th ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Palmer, W. R. (1995). An old hand's top ten suggestions for beginning teachers. *New Teacher's Advocate, 3*(1), 3.

Queensland Board of Teacher Registration. (1991). *Welcoming new teachers: Report of the working party on the induction of provisionally* *registered teachers.* Toowong, Australia: Queensland Board of Teacher Registration.

Rosenholz, S. J. (1989). *Teachers' workplace.* White Plains, NY: Longman, Inc.

Runyan, C. K. (1990, November). *No more isolated Cinderellas at the swimming hole: A call for needs-based developmental induction.* Paper presented at the annual conference of the National Council of States on Inservice Education, Orlando, FL.

Runyan, C. K. (1991, November). *Empowering beginning teachers through developmental induction.* Paper presented at the 16th annual national conference of the National Council of States on Inservice Education, Houston, TX.

Ryan, K. (1979). At the threshold of the profession. In K. R. Howey & R. H. Bents (Eds.). *Toward meeting the needs of the beginning teacher.* Minneapolis, MN: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

Ryan, K. (1986). *The induction of new teachers.* Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa.

Ryan, K., Newman, K., Magger, G., Applegate, J., Lasley, T., Randall, R., & Johnson, J. (1980). *Biting the apple: Accounts of first-year teachers.* New York: Longman.

Schlecty, P. H. (1985). A framework for evaluating induction into teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education, 36*(1), 37-41

Schlecty, P., & Vance, V. (1981). Do academically able teachers leave education? The North Carolina case. *Phi Delta Kappan, 63,* 106-112.

Schlecty, P., & Vance, V. (1983). Recruitment, selection and retention: The shape of the teaching force. *Elementary School Journal, 83,* 469-487.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1994). *The principalship* (3rd ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Shulman, J. H., & Colbert, J. A. (Eds.). (1987). *The mentor casebook.* Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.

Shulman, J. H., & Colbert, J. A. (Eds.). (1988). *The intern teacher casebook.* Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.

Smith, W. R., & Andrews, R. L. (1989). *Instructional leadership: How principals make a difference.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Talbert, B. A., Camp, W. G., & Heath-Camp, B. (1991). A review and synthesis of the literature on teacher induction: The vocational education perspective. *Journal of Industrial Teacher Education, 19*(2), 35-50.

Tanner, D., & Tanner, L. (1987). *Supervision in education.* New York: Macmillan.

Veenman, S. (1984). Perceived problems of beginning teachers. *Review of Educational Research, 54*(2), 143-178.

Vittetoe, J. O. (1977). Why first-year teachers fail. *Phi Delta Kappan, 57*, 429-430.

Vonk, J. H. C. (1993, April). *Mentoring beginning teachers: Development of a knowledge base for mentors.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Atlanta, GA.

Walker, L. (1992, November). *Mentoring: A review of the literature.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association, Knoxville, TN.

Wideen, M. F., & McNally, G. W. (1992, April). *Induction practices at the district level: Fact or fiction.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Wise, B., Johnson, B., & Parson, P. (1994, October). *Teacher education in transition: Alternative certification, Texas style.* Paper presented at the 41st annual conference, Southeastern Regional Association of Teacher Educators, Baltimore, MD.

Yukl, G. A. (1989). *Leadership in organizations* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Zumwalt, K. (1984). Teachers and mothers: Facing new beginnings. *Teacher's College Record, 86*(1), 139-155.

From First-Year to First-Rate
Principals Guiding Beginning Teachers

Barbara L. Brock
Creighton University, Omaha, Nebraska
Marilyn L. Grady
University of Nebraska, Lincoln

"A candid assessment of the realities facing the 'first-year teacher.' A seamless blending of research and practice."

Thomas L. Krepel, Dean of University Outreach and
Associate Professor of Educational Administration
Texas A&M University, Corpus Christi

"A compelling rationale and practical steps for developing a first-year teacher induction program."

Linda L. Lyman, Associate Professor, Department of Educational Leadership and
Human Development, Bradley University, Peoria, Illinois

Help your new teachers get through that critical first year on the job. Show them how to translate their college knowledge to real-life teaching and learning. Here are positive steps you can take to implement a year-long induction program for your new teachers. Find out how you can

- Cut teacher attrition rates
- Improve continuity for your students
- Minimize interruptions to school programs
- Enhance the overall quality of teaching at your school

Learn strategies to prevent the isolation and loneliness that many new teachers feel. Raise new teachers' confidence level by beginning orientation before school starts. Welcome them into the school culture — start mentoring programs, provide ongoing work-related support systems, and offer constructive feedback as the school year passes.

Find out how to provide the comprehensive assistance new teachers need to remain enthusiastic as they develop their confidence and skills. Brock and Grady show you how to diagnose potential trouble areas and help you tailor programs to your school's needs.

You hold the key to the professional development of your teachers. Use it to unlock their potential for growth. Make sure your novices get the help, support, and training they need to flourish. When your new teachers succeed, *everyone* at your school benefits.

ISBN 0-8039-6419-6
780803 964198
90000>

CORWIN PRESS, INC.
A Sage Publications Company
2455 Teller Road
Thousand Oaks, CA 91320-2218
e-mail: order@corwin.sagepub.com
Call: 805-499-9774 Fax: 805-499-0871

BEST COPY AVAILABLE